The Nation.

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The Week.

THE death of ex-President Hayes, though sudden, has no shock for the public mind, and no political significance whatever. It must truthfully be said, also, that the event will excite very little interest. His highest honors were thrust upon him, not achieved by personal ambition, and his Administration did not win him popularity. He retired from office never again to take an active part in public affairs, and passed the life of a private gentleman who could lend some prestige to philanthropic boards and conferences for the elevation of the freedmen and the protection of the Indians. His means raised him above the necessity of making bitter reflections on the ingratitude of republics, and his good sense and just estimate of his own abilities kept him simple and unostentatious to the end of his days. In the long line of Presidents he will be remembered as the one the fairness of whose election was so seriously disputed as to bring the country to the verge of violent dissension; but also as the one who was fated to bring the civil war to a close by withdrawing the support of Federal troops from the carpet-bag governments of the South. If he disappointed the hopes of civil-service reformers, and had the insensibility to reward the members of the Southern returning-boards who counted him into office, he at least put a needful pause to the awful descent into jobbery and venality which marked the Administration of Grant. His personal habits and choice of associates, and the estimable character of his wife, went far to redeem the tone of Washington society during his incumbency. His want of force and of a distinct reformatory purpose prevented him either from laying a foundation on which his successor might build, or from compelling his successor to persevere in the same path. In fact, it was too evident that things under President Garfield were lapsing into their old course when the hand of Guiteau interposed to change the destiny of the party and the country.

Mr. Sherman has reported from the Senate Finance Committee a bill to repeal the Silver Purchase Act, and to provide for the issue of circulating notes by national banks up to the par value of the bonds deposited by them. Senators Sherman, Allison, Hiscock, McPherson, and Carlisle voted in the Committee in favor of the repealing bill, and Senators Harris and Voorhees against it. Senators Morrill, Aldrich, Vance, and Jones were absent. These, if present, would have been equally divided. The composition of the Committee is fairly indicative of the progress of sound doctrine in the Senate. One year ago, instead of 7 to 4 in favor of the bill, the vote most likely would have been 6 to 5 against it. It is safe to count both Allison and Carlisle as henceforth active supporters of the repealing bill. Whether a vote on the measure can be reached at this session is problematical, but it is a great gain to have got it before the Senate in the regular way. It will be a gain even if the silver Senators try to kill it by delay. One year ago they wanted nothing so much as a straight vote on free coinage, and when they secured it they actually had a majority for it. Now it appears that they want to avoid a vote, and when they speak of the repealing bill they say that they will "talk it to death" whenever it is pushed. This means that they know they have lost their majority, and that the repealing bill will pass whenever a vote is reached. If it is not reached at this session, President Cleveland will have very strong reasons for calling an extra session.

The Boston *Herald* considers the Cate Bill reported by the House Committee on Banking and Currency objectionable because, although it repeals the Sherman Act, it provides for the coining of the silver bullion now in the Treasury. The *Herald's* objection is stated in these terms:

> "As we understand the matter, only silver dollars to the face value of the outstanding Treasury notes will be held in the Treasury. The rest of the coinage will pass into the currency in one form or another. That residue, reckoned on the present volume of purchases of silver bullion, would add at least $35,000,000 to the amount of silver dollars or silver certificates in active circulation."

It is to be said on the other side that if the Treasury finds any way to put out the extra 35,000,000 of standard silver dollars, it will get gold dollars or gold value in return for them, and hence no harm would be done. But it is not likely that the Treasury could force these cartwheel dollars on the public by any possibility. Every effort has been made to put out more of these inconvenient coins, but the public have refused to carry more than some $60,000,000 of them, or say $1 per capita. There is no law authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to convert his own silver dollars into silver certificates. But, if the evil which the *Herald* discerns were real, it would be a very small price to pay for the stoppage of bullion purchases.

We do not see why the Quarantine Bill which has passed the Senate does not provide as uniform and effective a system of national quarantine as can be hoped for without completely abolishing all State quarantine establishments. Section 3 puts it in the power of the national Government to assume full control of quarantine regulations at the port of New York or anywhere else at any moment when the action of the local quarantine officials fails to meet the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury. It also gives the Secretary of the Treasury specific authority to detail, for special duty at New York, the Supervising Surgeon-General of the Marine Hospital Service, or any other equally competent sanitarian, with full power to overrule and supplant the Health Officer of the port at any moment when his conduct fails to conform with national regulations, or in any other manner fails to meet the approval of the national authorities. This is, in effect, full national quarantine, and, taken in connection with the other requirement, that the Secretary of the Treasury shall have rules and regulations drawn for the whole country and their administration made uniform everywhere, leaves little to be desired.

The feeling in favor of electing Senators by the popular vote, instead of through Legislatures, is plainly growing. At the recent election a proposition looking to an amendment of the Federal Constitution for that purpose was submitted to the people of California, and ratified by an overwhelming majority. In Iowa there is a movement in the same direction so far as present conditions permit. A new Senator will be elected by the Legislature to be chosen next November, and there is a strong sentiment in favor of having each party name its candidate at its State convention, as was done by the Democrats of Illinois in the case of Gen. Palmer. The Iowa Democrats are practically unanimous for Gov. Boies as their candidate, and there does not seem likely to be any opposition to the formal naming of him by the Convention. The Republicans are by no means united upon a candidate, and there is much division of opinion as to the wisdom of picking out one man to be supported by all the factions. It is urged against the plan that the friends of every one of four or five possible candidates before the Legislature would work zealously for the party during the campaign if the choice were to remain open, while if the other policy were adopted, the supporters of all except the one named by the State Convention would lose much of their interest. Notwithstanding this element of opposition, however, it seems likely that the Republicans will finally conclude to name their candidate in State Convention, like the Democrats. Meanwhile the lower house of Congress has (on Monday last) passed, without a dissenting vote, a joint resolution for an amendment to the Constitution providing for the popular election of Senators.

The solemn business of nominating Mr. Murphy by machine for United States

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Senator was carried out with only slight friction at Albany last week, and this action was confirmed by his election on Tuesday last. The obvious delight which the Machine leaders take in proceedings of this character is one of the most curious things about them. Everybody outside the Machine is convinced that this Murphy election is one of the most fatuous blunders ever committed in politics. Yet the Machine leaders chuckle over it, and are even persuaded that by forcing it through in defiance of public sentiment they have "humiliated" the President-elect. It is reported that as soon as Mr. Murphy takes his seat as Senator, he and his associate, Senator Hill, will make a formal call upon President Cleveland and tender him their services in carrying out his policy. It is just possible that he may not care for their assistance, and it is more than probable that he will get along better without it than with it.

The City Club started last week on what we conceive to be its true mission, the exposure of public abuses and the prosecution of official violators of the law. This work, in the present condition of the city government, can be done only by a powerful organization. Individuals cannot and ought not to be expected to undertake it. What serious work it is may be inferred from the simple fact that almost the whole bench of police magistrates—the exceptions are few—are in sympathy with the law-breakers, and use their power more or less to hinder and demoralize the police force in their attempts to repress or punish crime. Justice Burke, Mayor Gilroy's latest appointment, went to work discharging criminals almost as soon as he mounted the bench. Grady, whom the City Club have made arrangements to prosecute, got eight women out of confinement to which they had been sentenced for six months by Justice Taintor, who is one of the few respectable police magistrates—either by a trick played on the Commissioners of Charities and Correction or by a gross violation of the law. In the one case he ought to be pursued before the Common Pleas for misconduct in office; in the other he ought to be indicted by the Grand Jury, under the statute. This is a state of things which we think has no parallel in the history of civilized cities, and would excite more horror and astonishment if we had not come to it by gradual stages. We have been brought to it by a composition of causes. Which of them all has been most powerful is something which must be left to the discussion of the historian. The work before decent people now is to watch these malefactors from day to day, and use such legal machinery as exists for bringing them to justice and letting in light on their activities. They can easily crush any individual who assails them, but they cannot crush, and ought not to be able to cow, an organization like the City Club, if it has its heart in the work. Any intelligent and patriotic American who can sleep and work quietly and contentedly under Tammany rule may be sure there is something wrong with his moral make-up. He is not only a traitor to free government, but to civilization itself, of which these Tammany men are the sworn foes.

The speeches made by eminent citizens at the Lotus Club banquet to Mayor Gilroy on Saturday night call attention anew to one of the most serious obstacles to all efforts to secure not merely honest but respectable government for this city. Mayor Gilroy has offended public decency by appointing two notoriously unfit persons, one of them a murderer, to high public office. He has been denounced for this conduct by the City Club, which has a membership of nearly 1,000 of the most respectable people of the city, under the presidency of the city's most eminent lawyer, James C. Carter. Mayor Gilroy stood up at the banquet and called this censure of himself "slandering a public official, belittling his efforts, and making the name of the city a byword in the mouths of people of other municipalities." The impudence of this assumption, that the slander and reproach were not caused by the official who made the shameful appointments but by the citizens who rebuked him for it, was peculiarly Tammanyish and not at all surprising. But it was surprising to have a man like ex-Mayor Grace get up after Mr. Gilroy and sustain him in his impudence by saying: "My confidence in the certainty of the success of Mayor Gilroy is great. I sympathize with him in his disposition to find fault with the criticism and slander of those who are out of office directed to those who are in. I believe it is largely on account of this manner of slandering that so many good citizens take so little interest in politics." Does Mr. Grace really think so? What about the effect on decent citizens of finding the Gilroys eulogized in the very same terms as the Hewitts and Graces by men from whom better things were expected? It was less surprising, but no less significant, to have Chauncey M. Depew get up after Mayor Grace and say: "I am not here as a member of the City Club. In fact, I never was an amateur reformer. I truly sympathize with Mayor Gilroy when he says the people of this city who do not practise politics, are too prone to complain of the men on whose shoulders rests the burden of administering affairs."

Messrs. Grace and Depew are the leading representatives of the anti-Tammany political forces in this community, the County Democracy and the Republican party. Is it any wonder that there is no public confidence in the sincerity of that opposition when these two men stand up and not only defend the most offensive form of Tammany misgovernment, but ridicule as "slanderers" and "amateur reformers" the citizens who protest against it? If Messrs. Grace and Depew think Scannell and Koch are fit men for a Mayor to put into high office, why are they not both in Tammany Hall? Certainly they have cut from under their feet all ground upon which they can stand hereafter as opponents of Tammany rule. They surely cannot expect that Mayor Gilroy can do anything worse than this by which even they may be induced to take sides with his "slanderers." They have come to his defence at the moment when he stood in sorest need of it from some respectable source. Thousands of voters have said in former anti-Tammany campaigns: "Oh, the County Democrats and Republicans are no better than Tammany—they only want to get control in order to run the city in their own interest." Messrs. Grace and Depew now show that this talk was not without foundation.

The death of Gen. Butler comes at a time when he had well-nigh passed out of the public mind. It needs to be said that at several distinct periods he concentrated upon himself a very large share of public attention. The first of these periods was when he went as a delegate to the Charleston Convention of 1860 and voted fifty-seven times for the nomination of Jeff. Davis for President of the United States. His next appearance in a distinguished rôle was when he entered the Union Army. From Big Bethel to Bermuda Hundred, where Gen. Grant reported him as being "in a bottle, securely corked," it is doubtful if he rendered any real military service to the nation, although he managed to keep himself in evidence more than the generals (like Terry, for example) who took up his bad jobs and carried them to triumphant success. After the war, he entered Congress and disputed the leadership of the House with Blaine at one time, with results rather favorable to himself. His ambition was next fixed on the Governorship of Massachusetts, and, after one or two unsuccessful assaults, he actually carried that fortress. He had in the meantime become a sort of Democrat—a Butler Democrat — and in this character he turned up in 1884 as a candidate for the Presidency, with the intent of drawing enough votes away from Cleveland to elect his old enemy Blaine. It was supposed, at the time, that this arrangement was made with Butler by "Bill" Chandler at the "*Tallapoosa* Conference." At all events, the Butler campaign expenses must have been paid by Republican funds, as the Greenback-Labor party, whose nominal candidate Butler was, had no money of its own. The ignominious defeat of this conspiracy left Butler stranded politically, and he gradually passed out of notice. His career was one of great restlessness

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coupled with considerable smartness and an entire lack of moral sense.

The Panama Canal Company procured the services of Mr. Thompson of Indiana, who was at that time Secretary of the Navy under President Hayes, as Chairman of the American Committee at a salary of $25,000 per year. This was open and above board. As the American Chairman had nothing to do but to draw his salary, which we suppose he did with his usual energy, the question might be asked, What was the use of having an American Chairman at all? Evidently the only object was to enable M. de Lesseps to say to the French investing public, as he did with suitable frequency and flourish: "Behold, we have the American Minister of Marine actively enlisted in our enterprise." This assurance would go a great way with Jacques Bonhomme, upon whose imagination an official of this grade has a powerful charm. But it would do more. It would convince the French people in general that no difficulty would arise on this side of the water touching the Monroe doctrine. This doctrine, being altogether indefinite, is exactly suited to the purposes of anybody who occupies an influential position and is inclined to make trouble. Of course old Mr. Thompson never had any such thought; he is not that kind of man at all. But his chairmanship would serve to convince the French public that no trouble on account of the Monroe doctrine would arise. This would account for Mr. Thompson's salary of $25,000 for say eight years. Now, if there was a certain number of discerning persons in the Congress of the United States who had the power to make it hot for De Lesseps by stirring up the sediment of the Monroe doctrine in Senate and House, and thereby frightening French investors, and if it was deemed best to "placate" them, *i. e.*, purchase their silence, we can understand how the rest of the $2,400,000 used over here, on the testimony of M. Charles de Lesseps, may have been "got away with." But we should like very much to know their names, and the names of the disbursing agents as well.

On the whole, it may be now concluded that M. Ribot has managed to escape the danger with which the Republic was threatened a few weeks ago, and has given the Parisians time to recover their senses. The plan of burning down a house in order to roast a pig has always been in favor with the population of the capital, and they have resorted to it so many times that it was almost necessary for the Republic to meet and defeat it once at least in order to make sure of its stability—just as, as has been said, a banking-house has to pass through at least one panic to make its credit good. But it is melancholy to see the way in which it was thought necessary at first to treat the Panama prisoners in jail, in order, doubtless, to assure the public of the sincerity of the prosecution. They were taken to court every day handcuffed, at first in the ordinary prison van like the vilest criminals, but then in a cab, and, except that they were allowed to receive their meals from the outside, underwent other indignities which we inflict only on convicts. This is partly explained, however, by the fact that in the French law every accused man is a convict, and appears in court as such, and the judge "heckles" him as our lawyers do witnesses under cross-examination. The only new incidents in the case are the exposure of the enormous profits made by Eiffel of the great Tower, and some revelations about M. Hébard, the proprietor of the *Temps*, which seem to need a good deal of explanation.

The expulsion of the foreign correspondents from Paris by the Ministry seems a high-handed measure, but nobody who knows anything of the condition of the Parisian press and of the influence on the popular mind at crises like the present will doubt its expediency. The foreign correspondents in question either are Frenchmen, or live among the French journalists, frequent the same cafés, and get materials from them for the various lies, rumors, and insinuations which they scatter all over Europe. M. Ribot has to contend with two great difficulties—the excitability of the French people, and more particularly of the Parisians, combined with their now traditional tendency to change the form of the government as a remedy for either bad administration or bad legislation. During the last hundred years they have tried this remedy about nine times; and whenever a parliamentary crisis arises, it presents itself as a possibility to nearly everybody's mind—Conservative as well as Radical—and the population of Paris passes through a fever such as overtakes other nations only about once in two centuries. If the Billion Dollar Congress had been French, it is not unlikely that President Harrison would have had to fortify himself in the White House, and "Tom" Reed to take refuge in Canada, and we should have had to fight proposals to divide the Union into five Confederacies—one Free Trade, one Protectionist, one Populist, one Silver, and one Paper. The play of the press on the Parisian mind is, therefore, a matter of serious consideration for the Government, particularly as the press is manned in the main by frivolous and ignorant adventurers, who hate quiet times, and to whom a revolution would be a "lark" of the finest kind. The best Frenchmen do not heed them, but they have shown again and again their ability, by persistent lying and denunciation, to rouse the plain people—"les petites gens"—into a state bordering on frenzy.

With the French journalists it is difficult for M. Ribot to deal without appearing to attack the liberty of the press, and it may seem to us here that he might well disregard the correspondents of the foreign press also. But that is because we have happily no idea of the importance of foreign relations to all European statesmen. We ourselves can hardly be said to have any foreign relations at all. There is hardly any conceivable contingency which can make what foreigners think about us a matter of serious political concern. But to every European Power, except England, the foreign estimate of the character and stability of its political institutions is of the last importance, because every one of them expects to have every other either as an ally or an enemy in a bloody contest. It might, for instance, be a very serious matter to France to have the Russians, or Austrians, or Germans, or Italians come to the conclusion that the Republic was rotten, the voters disaffected, the army insubordinate, and all French statesmen venal. But this is the very notion the foreign correspondents have been trying to diffuse. They have been leading the foreign public and money market to believe not only that the Republic was on the verge of overthrow, but that French politicians were so degenerate that, if it were overthrown, nothing better or more durable could be expected in its place; and this would mean, if accepted, that France was neither formidable as an enemy nor valuable as a friend.

Caprivi's speech in favor of the new Army Bill before the Committee of the Reichstag no doubt showed the intention of the Emperor and the Cabinet to stand by that unpopular measure just as it is, but some of his arguments read queerly at this distance. Experience had shown, he said, that when war was threatened it was best for Germany to take the offensive, and therefore she needed increased forces. In other words, she must put herself in a position to be the bully of Europe. In that way, he continued, it was possible to obtain speedy victories and lasting results. But the most obvious lasting result is the increase of the army year by year, and continually growing tension with the country over which "speedy victories," with results that have been lasting in this sense, were won. This will scarcely reconcile the taxpayers to the new burdens which it is proposed to lay upon them. On the whole, we like Dr. Delbrück's argument in favor of the Army Bill better. He puts the matter on high ground, saying that much more is at stake than the mere granting of a sum of money, and that "a sovereign who deliberately makes a resolution, and then is compelled to abandon it, cannot be a sovereign longer in the true sense of the word." This has the right ring. The Emperor wants it, and that is enough. What sort of an Emperor is it that can't have his own way? Dr. Delbrück seems to be a left-over courtier of King Canute.

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PARTY DUTY.

THE *Tribune* of Monday has an address to the new General Committee of the Republican party, in which it gives them the following excellent advice:

> "For the present the Republican party in this city and State can be little more than a protesting power, but as such it can exert a tremendous influence. By vigilance, intelligent criticism, and uncompromising hostility, by keeping in touch with healthy public sentiment and responding to every impulse in the direction of reformatory effort, it can crystallize the honest elements of opposition to the Machine within and without the Democratic party and thus ultimately sweep from power the existing corrupt municipal and State governments."

If a party were an individual, it would be very ungracious to keep reminding it of its bygone faults and shortcomings. But a party is a perpetually changing body. New members pour into it every year; old members die off, and new questions, or new aspects of old questions, occupy its attention. There is, therefore, no way within our knowledge of supplying the recruits and converts with the fruits of political experience without going back over the history of the organization to which they belong. We would therefore respectfully point out to the members of the Republican party, and especially the younger ones, who are now weeping among the party ruins, that there is no visible human agency so much responsible for the present depressing condition of State and city affairs as the Republican party. Therefore the *Tribune* ought to have inserted, under the general head of "keeping in touch with healthy public sentiment and responding to every impulse in the direction of reformatory effort," a list of party errors to be hereafter avoided, and, if possible, atoned for.

For example, as to the shocking appointments to important public offices recently made by the Governor and the Mayor, consider the kind of example the party of intelligence and morality has set to our (for the most part) foreign-born or ignorant rulers in this matter. In 1884 it nominated for the Presidency, in spite of repeated warnings, a man whose personal character was objectionable to a considerable body of its members, and among these were some of the most respected and respectable men in the country. Whether the charges against him were true or false made little difference. From the great rule that public office is a public trust, it follows easily that no man to whom the beneficiaries object on personal grounds should be deliberately and defiantly put into a place of importance; for, to make a man fit for such a place, not only is it necessary that he should be pure, but that those whom he is to serve should believe him to be pure. Not only, however, were the objections made to the Republican candidate in 1884 derided, but the objectors were loaded with ridicule and abuse very like that with which the Hillites now load those who object to Judge Maynard. In fact, the arguments and epithets used in both cases are almost identical.

Out of this break with "healthy public sentiment and reformatory effort" came directly the growth of Quay as a party leader, and the appearance of Wanamaker as a religious worker under Quay, and a daily increasing contempt for what may be called the application of morals to politics. Nothing more cynical has been done here by Flower, or Hill, or Croker than was done in Pennsylvania, between 1884 and 1890, under the personal direction of the Chairman of the National Republican Committee. In defending and apologizing for all this, the Republican moralists had, by the time the Democrats got into power in this State, used their furniture and woodwork and the cargo of the ship to keep the fires going, and came into port in this State a dismantled moral wreck, under the command of one of the oldest and most notorious of the party reprobates, Mr. Thomas C. Platt. So much for the way in which the Republicans have led up to and made possible the Maynard incident.

Their responsibility for the rise and progress of Hill and Hillism is even plainer. They were so full of wrath with the Mugwumps for not accepting Blaine at their hands in 1884, that in 1885, in order to punish them and show the Mugwumps their weakness, they actually defeated their own candidate, Mr. Davenport, and thereby put Hill in the Governorship, and started him on the path of mischief which he has ever since trodden with faithful feet. Over this most unfortunate result the *Tribune* itself, as we have often shown from its columns, chuckled publicly and its editor chuckled privately. As soon as Hill got into the Governorship he became a power, prepared the way for Croker, Gilroy, and Flower, and made their methods seem attractive and legitimate because in his hands they had proved successful.

Our piteous plight in the city is explicable in very much the same way. Tammany did not recover from the low estate to which the Tweed frauds had reduced it as long as Tilden lived and remained the leader of the Democratic party. He left behind him in this city an element of Democratic opposition to it which it was of the highest importance, in the interest both of city and State, to nourish and encourage. It represented, though by no means perfectly, to a hopeful extent, "the better element" in the Democratic party in the city, and, as was seen, was prepared to give us such respectable candidates for the Mayoralty as Messrs. Grace and Hewitt. But the Republicans, far from seeking to turn this division to account for the benefit of the city, gleefully used it, on every possible occasion, for the benefit of the tariff and other Republican fancies. They ran Gibbs against Grace, Roosevelt against Hewitt, and Erhardt against Hewitt, thus slowly building Tammany up into the power we see it to-day, and finally, by defeating Scott by abstention, made Croker a dictator in both city and State. In fact, a more sorrowful story than the latter days of the Republican party we cannot recall in the whole history of politics. It reads like the fall into vicious courses of a brilliant minister of the Gospel, or like the adoption by a missionary of the manners and customs of the savages whom he was sent to evangelize. The party cannot, any more than any other sinner, recover its old place without bearing in mind what the sins are which have most easily beset it, and what have been the opportunities which it has missed or abused.

THE HARM OF IMMIGRATION.

THE proposal to suspend immigration wholly for a time as a safeguard against cholera has in it a good deal of the old mediæval admission of inability to take scientific precautions against cholera. The mediæval legislator knew of only one way of protecting the community against foreign infection, and that was absolute non-intercourse. He put ship, cargo, and passengers under a ban for a long period, and though his quarantine was never completely effective, it gave him the satisfaction of feeling that he had done everything he could think of besides praying; for praying, coupled with promises of church-building or gifts to churches, was his main reliance. The best-known church in Venice—that of the Madonna della Salute on the Grand Canal—celebrates the stoppage of a pestilence by the Virgin Mary after quarantine had totally failed. We have no such reliance on the Virgin for such purposes, but we have had a reliance almost as great on our Jenkinses, who meet our vows by keeping the enemy at a distance. This is still the simple remedy of all the more untutored States to-day. When they see "the pest ship" approaching, they train a gun on her, and make her anchor in some remote spot until her passengers either get well or pass on to a better country. We have been shamed out of this system as regards ordinary traffic and cabin passengers, but we still cling to it as regards the lower class of immigrants. The chance of infection from them seems to us so great that, sooner than attempt to disinfect them, we propose to shut them out altogether. This is hardly creditable either to our administrative or to our sanitary resources. Disinfection is now simply a question of money and space. Given a place to put infected people, in reasonable comfort, the problem of disinfection is no more serious than the maintenance in health of a regiment of recruits.

This would be all true even if the immigrants came here only for their own good, and were of no manner of use to the American community. But is this the case? The only way we have of deciding it is to find out where the places are in the United States in which there is no demand for the coarser forms of labor which the immigrants supply. We have made a good

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deal of inquiry on this point, but never could get any answer even from the advocates of restriction. Where are the farms on which there is no place for the "hired man" or "hired girl"? Where are the towns in which the supply of domestic servants is overflowing, and "the help" compelled, through competition, to take any places that are offered them? Where are the works of irrigation, or drainage, or canal, or railroad, or aqueduct building, or mining in which labor is a drug, and the contractors have everything their own way? And, to look at the matter retrospectively, which are the great public works already in existence that would be in existence now if the tide of European emigration had not begun to flow this way after 1840? Since 1840 almost all our railroads have been made. They form altogether a great work, such as no other modern nation can show, because they cover immense distances through regions that were utterly wild and but thinly peopled when the roads were made, and, indeed, from the point of view of laboriousness, have had no prototype except the roads which the Romans carried to the remotest corners of the Empire.

We are aware that Gen. Francis A. Walker, who has been discussing the emigration problem from both the moral and the economical point of view, with great freedom and force, holds that we could have executed all our great public works through the native population solely. He holds that, as the clearing of the continent of its timber and the fencing of the land for agricultural purposes was a stupendous job, and was executed solely with American hands, there would have been no difficulty in getting American labor for the railroads when the demand for them came. But the probabilities seem to us all the other way, for the reason that nearly all American manual labor has hitherto been expended on the home of the laborer. The American of the last century and the beginning of this did a great work, but it was done almost invariably in order to secure himself a house with arable fields around it. He has never shown any disposition to go to a distance, in a gang, as a hired man, and live in huts on rude fare for months away from his family, cutting canals and railroads through swamps and mountains. He has apparently always felt that he could do better for himself, and, when the country called for the railroads, let the foreigner come in and make them.

Nor has it been shown that the low standard of living of the newly arrived emigrant drags down that either of the immigrants already here or of the natives. There is no available testimony on this head which does not point the other way. There is no class of emigrants, on the contrary, who do not little by little raise their standard of living in their desire to assimilate themselves to the American population. The process may be slow where the emigrants of the same origin keep together in villages or in certain quarters of the great towns, but the movement is almost always upward. They gradually wear better clothes, eat better food, and become more cleanly in their habits. Those who have been here for ten years are rarely distinguishable from the natives in dress, and though the improvement in their dwellings and personal habits is slower than in dress, it goes on. In fact, the physical or moral harm which the immigrants, simply as additions to the laboring population, have done to the United States is not perceptible, or, at all events, has never been clearly pointed out.

The harm they do the country as additions to the voting population is undoubted, notorious, and undeniable. The practice which prevails all over the country, and of which both parties are equally guilty, of seizing the emigrants and imposing the franchise on them very soon after they land, almost willy-nilly, has had an influence on our public men, on our press, and on our legislation of the most deleterious kind. A whole volume might be filled with illustrations of this. Nearly all the economical absurdities produced on the stump or embodied in legislation are due to a desire to "capture the foreign vote." The degradation of our city government is largely due to the readiness of the natives to let the immigrants sack the cities in return for their support in the Federal arena. In truth, there is no corner of our system in which the hastily made and ignorant foreign voter may not be found eating away the political structure, like a white ant, with a group of natives standing over him and encouraging him. There is not to-day, however, a single proposal before the country from any reputable source to procure a naturalization law which will arrest the great debasement of our politics through the incessant additions made to the voting population by the half-civilized new comers, and we are on the point of seeing nearly all our large cities turned over completely to them and the handful of demagogues who control them.

THE KANSAS SITUATION.

THE condition of Kansas at this moment is so extraordinary as to challenge the attention of the nation. Rival bodies claim the right to be considered the legal House of Representatives, and one side seems ready to resort to force if necessary to carry the day. The wildest doctrines are proclaimed amid the loudest applause, and almost any extreme of folly appears possible.

The situation results from the rise of the Populist party. Under the name of the Farmers' Alliance, it almost elected its candidate for Governor in 1890, chose "Jerry" Simpson and four other Alliance candidates as Representatives in Congress, and elected a Legislature which sent Peffer to the United States Senate. At the recent election it carried the Governorship and the upper branch of the Legislature, but failed to secure the lower house, a clear majority of its members being Republicans, while three or four regular Democrats could not be depended upon to help the Populists. Ever since the election the managers of the latter party have been scheming to secure control of the House, and thus of the whole Legislature, which is to choose a United States Senator.

The new Governor, Lewelling by name, was inaugurated on January 9, and his inaugural address was a singular production. He pictured the condition of the State as terrible. "Our hearts have ached," he said, "because of evictions under the Irish tenant laws, but hundreds of our own families are made homeless every year by the foreclosure laws of Kansas, and thus the power which freed the African is forcing into the same crucible the sons and daughters of our own blood." He proceeded:

> "Two great forces are forming in battle line: the same under different form and guise that have long been in deadly antagonism, represented in master and slave, lord and vassal, king and peasant, despot and serf, landlord and tenant, lender and borrower, organized avarice and the necessities of the divided and helpless poor. I appeal to the people of this great commonwealth to array themselves on the side of humanity and justice."

He proclaimed it the especial duty at the present time to "protect the producer from the ravages of combined wealth." First among these ravages he ranked the refusal to permit the free coinage of silver, and next the withdrawal of circulation by the national banks, as a result of which "the purchasing power of the dollar has become so great that corn, wheat, beef, pork, and cotton have scarcely commanded a price equal to the cost of production." He drew a gloomy picture of "the farmer who wearily drags himself from dawn till dark to meet the stern necessities of the mortgage on the farm," and of "the business man, early grown gray, broken in health and spirit by the successive failures, anxiety, like a boding owl, his constant companion by day and the disturber of his dreams by night."

"Is the State powerless against these conditions?" asked the new Governor. "Then," he answered himself, "the State has failed, and our boasted civil compact is a hollow mockery. But," he declared, "government is not a failure, and the State has not been constructed in vain." He closed with a glowing picture of what would be accomplished by "the generation which has come to the rescue":

> "Conscience is in the saddle; we have leaped the bloody chasm and entered a contest for the protection of home, humanity, and the dignity of labor. The grandeur of civilization shall be emphasized by the dawn of a new era, in which the people shall reign. And if found necessary they will 'expand the powers of government to solve the enigmas of the times.' The people are greater than the law or the statutes, and when a nation sets its heart on doing a great and good thing, it can find a legal way to do it.
>
> "I have a dream of the future. I have an enduring faith, the evolution of an abiding faith in human government. And in the beautiful visions of a coming time I behold

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the abolition of poverty. A time is coming when the withered hand of want shall not be outstretched for charity, when liberty, equality, and justice shall have permanent abiding places in this republic."

On the evening of inauguration day the Populists held a "love-feast," at which speeches were made by Jerry Simpson, Mrs. Lease, and others of their leaders, in the same line as Lewelling's. The Governor had said: "The Government must make it possible for the citizen to enjoy liberty and the pursuit of happiness. If the Government fails of these things, it fails in its mission. It ceases to be of advantage to the citizen; he is absolved from his allegiance, and is no longer held by the civil compact." Simpson proceeded from generals to particulars. "You must organize the Legislature in this hall to-morrow," he said, "and I wouldn't let the technicalities of the law stand in the way. Call this revolution if you will. I do not favor revolution in this case, but only as a last resort; but see to it that you organize the Legislature here to-morrow." This advice was followed. That is to say, the Populist minority of Representatives elected a Speaker and organized a House on one side of the Chamber, while the Republicans did the same thing on the other side, being supported by three of the Democrats.

A secret caucus of the Populist leaders was held on January 11, which was addressed by the Assistant Attorney-General, by one of the Weaver Electors, by a Populist candidate for United States Senator, and other prominent members of the party. This caucus adopted resolutions congratulating the people of Kansas upon having the organization of the House in their interest, and saying, among other things:

"Resolved, That we endorse and applaud the glorious action of the Representatives, and urge them, if not recognized by the Governor, to say to him, as did Mirabeau to his king when the monarch refused to recognize the French Assembly of the people: 'Slave, go tell your master we are here by the will of the people, and we shall disperse only at the point of the bayonet.'

"Resolved, further, That we urge the representatives of the great American people to stand firm as a unit, and that we pledge them unfaltering support in their movements against the representatives of greed and avarice."

On Thursday the Governor recognized the Populist House, and it began to look as though the leaders were bent upon having their way at any cost—going so far even as to impeach Supreme Court judges, if necessary to secure decisions which will give them some color of law for their performances. Not a few members of the party look with disfavor upon this programme, but such men as Simpson and such women as Mrs. Lease thus far are in control of the organization.

The most extraordinary feature of this whole business remains to be stated. It is found in the facts that Kansas is, on the test of illiteracy, one of the most intelligent States in the Union; that it has an excellent public-school system, many college institutions, and a State university; that it has few cities, and not a large foreign element; and that it has always been considered a fair sample of an American commonwealth, in which the system of self-government was working out its perfect fruit. Such an unexpected outbreak as this of the last two or three years shows at least that it is not only in the cities, where the foreign-born swarm, that demagogues may thrive and the doctrine of revolution be preached.

THE CATHOLIC CONTROVERSY.

THE outbreak of dissensions among the higher clergy in the Catholic Church in this country is not a thing of a day's bringing forth. The origin of the trouble dates a long way back, and resides partly in personal differences between rival Catholic leaders, and partly in grave questions of ecclesiastical policy. Archbishop Corrigan had his first personal clash with Archbishop Ireland years ago in the matter of the attitude of the Church to the Knights of Labor, when the New York prelate, it was understood, was for dealing with that organization in the summary way adopted by the Canadian hierarchy. Then came the McGlynn case, with its further injection of personal bitterness. But above and beyond all these questions relating to persons, there gradually grew up two parties in the Church sharply divided on the subject of the proper attitude of Catholics towards American public schools.

Archbishop Corrigan was the leader and representative of what may be called the High Church party. He was for exalting the authority of the Church over all political institutions. The only relation of Catholics to the school system which he would countenance was one of hostility, and of endeavor to force an appropriation of public funds for the support of the parochial schools. In this he assumed to pose as the especial champion of the Papacy, and wished it to be understood that he had truer ideas of the divine rights of the Church and of the authority of discipline than those of the episcopate who differed from him. For a long time everything went his way. The decrees of the Baltimore Council on the school question were after his own heart. All the talk was of forcing every parish to have its own Catholic school, and of visiting with the severest ecclesiastical pains those Catholic parents who should send their children to the public schools. Archbishop Ireland's famous Faribault plan of compromise between Catholic ideas and the American school system was denounced as a wicked and dangerous measure, which would be sure to be condemned by the Pope as soon as the Holy Father could get his hands on it.

But then came Archbishop Ireland's pilgrimage to Rome, of last year, and its unexpected consequences. He seems to have won over the Pope and the Propaganda completely, and has got a series of decisions which has left his opponents dumfounded. His Faribault plan, instead of being disallowed, was approved. More than that, a fully empowered Legate of the Pope was despatched to this country for the special purpose of settling the school question, and the fourteen authorized propositions which he read in the name of the Holy See at the gathering of archbishops in this city last November, more than sustained the Archbishop of St. Paul. In fact, it was the Corrigan plan that was condemned, inasmuch as the highest and infallible Catholic authority decided that it was no sin for Catholics to patronize American schools, and that they should be allowed freely to do so where they had no parochial schools, or where the latter were distinctly inferior to those maintained at public expense.

This was a fearful blow to his Grace of New York, who had appealed to the Pope and got more than he bargained for. It was not to be expected that he should manifest any great happiness over the result, as he certainly did not, but it was to be presumed that he would submit, even if sullenly. Yet the revelations of Sunday week make the astonishing fact clear that the very prelate who had been most strenuous in exalting papal privilege and preaching the doctrine of submission, and who had denounced all efforts to Americanize the Church, is now endeavoring to excite resistance to the Pope's decision on the school question, and to arouse a spirit of resentment at foreign dictation in matters of church policy. He has set about this, moreover, in the way of a politician endeavoring to manufacture public sentiment through inspired interviews and editorial articles, and, like some politicians, has come to grief through the publication of one of his intriguing letters marked "Private."

It may not be true that his conduct has been made, or will shortly be made, the basis of serious charges against him at Rome, though the utterances of both Archbishop Satolli and Archbishop Ireland show that they resent his scheming and are disposed to hold him to a pretty strict account of some sort. But however that may be, the exposure of his methods cannot but bring a heavy loss of prestige both to him and to the cause for which he stands. If the papal approval of Archbishop Ireland's Faribault plan was of itself a victory for liberal Catholicism, the subsequent decisions of the Pope, through his representative, and the humiliation of the leader of the reactionaries, have put that victory beyond question and made it secure. Infallible wisdom cannot reverse its judgments, and therefore it will no longer be possible for good Catholics in this country to maintain their attitude of uncompromising hostility to American public schools.

Looking at the matter in its larger aspects, it reveals the same liberal spirit which has marked Leo's policy in regard to the French Republic. As Mr. Santa-

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yana remarks in his late article in the *New World*, this is but a wise recognition of the fact that history has brought about a change of the seat of power in France, and that the same expediency which once made it advisable for the Church to cast in her lot with the conservative parties and dynasties of Europe, now impels her to seek alliance with the rising might of democracy. It will be largely due to the sagacity and firmness of the Pope if the Catholic Church succeeds in what the writer quoted declares to be its present hope—that of "regaining the confidence of the masses." He judiciously observes:

"Whether this vast ambition is capable of realization, it is, of course, impossible to say. All that we may predict with safety is that, if it is realized, it will be in a form materially different from that intended. The Catholic may be allowed to believe that the Church is infinitely adaptable, and in all societies maintains the same doctrines and diffuses the same influences. But the impartial observer will nevertheless think that this elasticity of the Church is a property of its organization rather than of its religious content, and that the world has already seen more than one religion under the name of Catholicism. Perhaps the democracy of a future age may call itself Catholic—even this would be a strange repetition of history. But that new Catholicism would be something different from what we know, and something to which our affection or our aversion would be only partially transferable."

THE GEOLOGIC ATLAS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE beginning of this new year will be marked in scientific annals by the appearance of the first number of the 'Geologic Atlas of the United States,' issued by the National Geological Survey at Washington. It is now more than ten years since the reorganization of the Survey, and in this interval its publications have consisted of annual reports, monographs, bulletins, and statistical summaries of our mineral resources. A large number of topographic maps of different parts of the country, of which more below, have also been prepared and sparingly distributed to libraries, but not generally published as yet. The results of much of the field labor of the Survey still remain in its offices; partly because their final preparation involves deliberate review and comparison, and partly because their publication requires the adoption of a consistent plan that shall with good probability hold for a number of years to come, and in which the scheme of map-coloring and description shall be as uniform as possible for all parts of the country. The first folio of the final atlas, prepared in accordance with this matured plan, is now before us. It is a beautiful product of good work.

The largest preliminary undertaking required for the preparation of the Geologic Atlas was to secure a topographic map on which the geology of the country could be adequately represented. Much topographic work had previously been done in the West by different surveys, but it was of various styles, and it had not been uniformly drawn and published. The maps issued by the Coast Survey, the Lake Survey, and the Mississippi River Commission covered only a relatively small part of the national domain, and, like the work of the earlier Western surveys, was not in form for the use of the geologist. The United States Geological Survey therefore began to make a topographic map of the country in 1882, the largest map ever undertaken by a nation. The successive annual reports of the director contain accounts of the plan and progress of the work. The chief problem of the map has been to decide on a method of field work and a scale and style of publication that should at once present results of sufficient accuracy and minuteness and yet not cost too much. The total cost for the entire topographic survey will of course be a large sum, but we can only regret that Congress has not allowed an even more liberal use of public funds for this purpose. The maps already issued serve truly to teach us more of our home geography than was ever known before, except by observant travellers or by individual observers in local districts; we would gladly see a greater expense incurred and a greater degree of accuracy reached.

Up to the end of the last fiscal year, June 30, 1892, an area of 547,000 square miles—about one-sixth of our domain, distributed over forty-two States and Territories—had been surveyed. Six hundred and forty-nine map sheets had at that time been completed—295 of these being on a scale of 1:62,500; 338 on a scale of 1:125,000; and 61 on a scale of 1:250,000. Hereafter, all surveys will be made for the first of these scales, about an inch to a mile; this being about the scale that is now generally adopted by many countries. Smaller scales do not allow of the introduction of necessary topographic and geologic detail; larger scales involve too great an expense. All of these maps are drawn on a uniform system. The sheets on a scale of a mile to an inch cover a sixteenth of a latitude and longitude "square degree"; each sheet being named after its chief town and State. We may note that convenience of use would be served if an index of the names of the eight adjacent sheets were added on the margin. Each sheet is printed in three colors. Brown gives the topographic relief, indicated by contour lines which give the altitude above sea level; the vertical interval between the contours varying from 5 to 250 feet, according to the scale of the map and the needs of the district. The water is in blue; and all names, roads, and boundaries are in black.

Quite apart from the geological use to which these maps will all be put, they are of great value from their indication of the actual form of our country. Those who are interested in geographic study know that the maps commonly published fail to give any proper representation of the features of our States. A few special maps have been published by State or local geological surveys, but the area they include is insignificant. The real expression of the great remainder of the country has been only vaguely known, except to those who travel extensively over it. But, with the national topographic maps in hand, the case is quite different. Recognizing at the outset that the limit of their cost has kept down their scale and has reduced their minute accuracy below what geographers would wish, we still find in them a vast fund of long-desired information. In New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, where local and national authorities have joined forces and completed the surveys, the State atlases are published and are in great demand; and, fortunately, the cost of purchase is so low in single sheets that everybody in these States may now have a reasonably good map of his surroundings. Elsewhere the published sheets do not as yet completely cover any State; but the areas surveyed are large, and when the maps are brought together, they present the topography of the regions with much distinctness. Where but on these maps can one find an adequate picturing of the Berkshire plateau of western Massachusetts, deeply incised by the valleys of the Deerfield and Westfield Rivers, which sink more than a thousand feet below the broad uplands? Look at the sheets of middle Pennsylvania and enjoy the portrayal of the remarkable linear mountain ridges of the Keystone State. Examine the intricate topography of the dissected plateau of West Virginia and of the adjoining part of eastern Kentucky, and learn from the inaccessibility of those districts the reason for their slow civilization. See the broad prairies of Missouri, the peculiar glacial hills of Wisconsin, the clustered sand dunes to leeward of the rivers in Kansas, the lofty tablelands of Utah and Arizona. The educational value of these maps alone repays their cost. With all their other uses included, we believe the nation would be well warranted in permitting a greater expense and a finer detail in their preparation.

With such maps as these in hand, the field geologists have drawn in the boundaries of various rock formations; and a considerable number of sheets are now geologically hand-colored in the Washington office; but their publication is a matter of deliberation. After preliminary discussion in the office, a plan of publication was drawn up and submitted for comment to many members of the Survey. The criticisms thus secured have been duly considered, and finally a definite plan of publication is entered upon. A single sheet, that of the district around Chattanooga, Tenn., is now completed in atlas form. The atlas has a stiff paper cover of large size, with an index map on the face, locating the map within its State. Eight large sheets are included in this cover. The first contains a general explanation of the maps for the whole country, and this will be repeated uniformly in all the atlases, except so far as experience with those first issued suggests changes for later folios. The second sheet contains an outline of the geological history of the region of which the map makes a part; in this case, the region concerned is that of the Appalachian Mountains, and the general essay is prepared by Mr. Bailey Willis. This sheet will be repeated with the maps of the Appalachian region. The third sheet presents an account of the limited area about Chattanooga included in the map, under such headings as geography, rock series, structure and mineral resources; this being by Mr. C. Willard Hayes. Then follow four map sheets—the first, topographic; the second, geologic; the third, economic; the fourth, containing structural sections placed in their proper position on an outline geologic map. The last three are elaborately colored. Finally, there is a table of columnar sections of the rock formations. In short, the atlas contains a concise monograph of the region, verbal and graphic, in its general and local relations.

It is manifest that a considerable intelligence is required for the understanding of so broad an account of a region as is here presented; but it is equally manifest that a serious and successful attempt has been made by the officers of the Survey to present the facts in as untechnical a form as is consistent with clearness and brevity. Subsequent monographic reports will discuss the region more fully; but the present intention of the Director of the Survey, as expressed in this product of the work under his charge, is clearly to give us a statement of the geological history, structure, and products of our country in as generally useful a manner as is consistent with scientific accuracy. The people of the United States are to be congratulated on the beginning of so grand

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a series of national publications as is foreshadowed by this atlas of the Chattanooga sheet.

AN EXHIBITION OF THE WORK OF BURNE-JONES.

LONDON, January 3, 1893.

THREE winter exhibitions in the New Gallery exhausted the artistic resources of the three great royal houses of Great Britain. For this year novelty had to be sought in less exalted quarters, and upon Mr. Burne-Jones fell the honor of succeeding Tudors and Stuarts and Guelphs.

By their choice the managers showed their wisdom. At no earlier period in the artist's career could his life's work have claimed the serious attention it now commands; the chances are it will never again arouse the same interest and respect. Not that there has been any marked development or change in his art of late, but various other causes have conspired to bring him into unusual prominence. Artistic opinion in England is more influenced by French thought and French criticism than the English themselves realize, or, if they did, would care to admit. The result of Burne-Jones's success across the Channel has been his increased notoriety at home. His drawings were found worthy of the French Luxembourg; at once in England he became the legitimate successor to queenly amateurs and royal martyrs in popular galleries. The few who have always recognized what is great in his work, despite its shortcomings, have not doubled or lessened their appreciation; but the many, who have hitherto either sneered or else preserved a discreet indifference, are now prepared to worship. The new impetus in his favor has been the stronger since in France he is applauded for those very qualities which most appeal to the average Englishman.

He had exhibited in Paris, and been praised, several years before, but still it was only in 1889 that the French may be said really to have discovered him. His appearance in their exhibitions just then was opportune. Frenchmen were on the lookout for a new fad in art. They had had their fill of realists and naturalists, of impressionists and *plein-airistes*. Literary men were evolving new schools with bewildering rapidity, but, in the art world, matters seemed to have come to a standstill. Indeed, the degree of technical skill artists had attained appeared to leave little scope for any important revolution, any startlingly novel or morbid development except in *subject*, and it was therefore to subject that attention was turned. Here, for the seekers, the required fad was found, made to their hand. In France and elsewhere, isolated and belonging to no special group, were a few men who had always shown a tendency to the fantastic in subject and the decorative in treatment, with results that were in marked contrast to the prevailing realism. There was in France itself Puvis de Chavannes, strong enough to be accepted as master by the Parisians when his methods were least in fashion. There were in Germany Max Klinger, Franz Stuck, and, above all, Arnold Böcklin, slighted in Berlin, and for years believed in by no one but Baron Schack of Munich. Descending upon Paris—for its conquest, Zola would say — came, from one hardly knew where, Fernand Klumpff and Carlos Schwabe — moderns in technical accomplishment, primitives in design and arrangement. And it was at this juncture that Burne-Jones arrived, bringing with him all the traditions of the pre-Raphaelites. The cue was given; the faddists took it up to good purpose. Art is holy, preached Sâr Peladan and the Rosicrucians, as if the same theory had not already been proclaimed by Ruskin and worn to shreds in England. The artist should paint only the ideal, the more progressive critics agreed with Octave Uzanne. If idealism or mysticism or religion on canvas was what was wanted, there was not a French painter who was not equal to the occasion. With the addition of halo and appropriate title, it was a simple matter to transform boulevardians and peasants into Christs and Madonnas; it was, after all, far easier to render the light that never was, on sea or land, than actual sunshine; in the end, allegory required less research than elaborate historical composition. Last spring, mysticism was rampant in both Salons. But the line was quickly drawn between the genuine and the imitation; between the men who painted "the ideal" to be in the movement, and the men whose special game had been to paint it all their lives—between Puvis and Jean Béraud, between Böcklin and Latouche, between Burne-Jones and Blanche. And among the acknowledged leaders of the idealists, or mystics, Burne-Jones was ranked very high. True, in technique, he was centuries behindhand. But if to him subject plainly was of more importance than handling, if his drawing at times degenerated into the archaic, this was but a sign of his deeper mysticism. Besides, charm of color and ingenuity in filling a given space were felt to be redeeming qualities in his work. Even in their fads, the French do not lose all artistic perception. In England it has always been his subject which has captivated his admirers. Now that his shortcomings, which pass for mysticism, have been sanctioned in Paris, it is to be feared that his influence will be far more widespread than heretofore, and that this influence will be exerted by all that is weakest in his art.

For this reason the exhibition of his work is just now of peculiar interest, not only to managers of a gallery, who look to profit, but to students, who look to the future. The collection is fairly representative. It includes all his most famous pictures, with the exception of the "Adoration of the Magi," the "Perseus," the "Sponsa di Libano," the "Briar Rose" series; but these can be the more readily dispensed with since it is in them his mannerisms are most intolerable, his defects most aggressive. The result of bringing together such a number of his paintings and studies is at once to emphasize his strength and his limitations. What these are it would be useless to point out in detail, so admirably have his qualities as an artist been summed up in the *Nation's* recent notice of 'Edward Burne-Jones: A Record and Review.' But in the original work certain facts necessarily are more conspicuous than in the reproductions. If he has any claim to greatness, if he excel at all, it is as a colorist, and the beauty of his color is lost when his pictures are reproduced in black and white. Moreover, it is as a colorist that the extent of his debt to Rossetti is most apparent.

It might be difficult to trace to its source the inspiration of Puvis de Chavannes or Böcklin. But with Burne-Jones there can be no such difficulty. He is the direct product of the Pre-Raphaelites, who, in their turn, were the artistic offspring of Ford Madox Brown. Of all this school, whether founder or brotherhood, the one really great and original man was Rossetti. He was a most indifferent painter, a still worse draughtsman; but he was a poet who succeeded, after a fashion, in putting his poetry on canvas, and in producing beautiful color in the process. His poetic individuality may arouse appreciation, but the student could not possibly find a more misleading and incompetent master. Burne-Jones, however, accepted him as the infallible Pope of Art, from whom he borrowed method (or lack of method), color, subjects, models, and, in a word, everything that was to be borrowed. Some of his first water-colors, dated in the early sixties, the "Fatima" or "A Dream," for example, might indeed pass for literal copies of Rossetti. In the review I have referred to, the critic explains that his finer accomplishment followed his emancipation from Rossettian bondage. But his pictures prove this to be only in a measure true. To all the affectations and technical weaknesses which, in his blind faith, he accepted from the master, he added something of the latter's trick of color. In his least mature work, as in Rossetti's, there are times when the rich hue of a bit of drapery, or the warm glow in a glimpse of distant sky, forces one to forgive primitiveness of design and execution. His "Merlin and Nimuë" and the "Forge of Cupid," both dated 1861, are simply little gems of color. And in the elaborate working out of detail he seems also to have appropriated for himself much of Rossetti's decorative sense, which, on occasions, saved him from tediousness. Two tiny water-colors, "Clara von Bork" and "Sidonia von Bork," attributed to 1860, as elaborate as anything he has ever done, are among his masterpieces. Apparently, in those early days, doubt never disturbed his artistic creed—he knew what he wanted; it had not occurred to him that the means provided by Rossetti were inadequate, and so he managed to produce the effects for which he was striving.

But with time he evidently became conscious that the master was but an apprentice who could not teach the very things which it is most important for the student to learn. He threw off Rossetti's childish technique and broadened his own methods. It is curious to contrast the breadth with which the minute detail in the globes held by the angels in "The Days of Creation," dated 1877, is suggested, with the elaborate carrying-out of the gown in "Sidonia von Bork." He has never concerned himself with the problems of light and atmosphere which are the delight and despair of the modern artist; for him impressionism, at least in the rendering of facts in Nature, has had no meaning, no fascination. But he has learnt how to put his paint on canvas, and in technique has grown more accomplished. It seems, however, almost as if, with increased knowledge, had come increased distrust. His later work is tentative, experimental, compared to the youthful water-colors, in which there was no hesitation. Effort is too often visible. Frequently it appears to have weakened his grasp of color, to have made him more ingenious than artistic in his decorative scheme. There are notable exceptions, of course. Nothing could exceed the exquisite depth and richness of color in his portrait of his daughter, though perhaps on no canvas is his curious inability to draw the human face more marked. And nothing could be more effective and finer than the design of the "King Cophetua," though even here one could have wished for less invention, or ingenuity, in the details. But when all is said, his best period is that which produced the "Chant d'Amour" and the "Wine of Circe," when he had full command of the color he had inherited from Rossetti, but was beginning to take some heed of technical requirements. In these was none of the fussiness of such compositions

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as the "Briar Rose," none of the crude tints of the "Danaë" or the "Sponsa di Libano."

In his drawings is found the same combination of strength and weakness. He is a master in some of his studies of detail. Those of draperies and of armor, done in chalk on black paper, even Menzel could not surpass. And yet his more finished designs for a series of illustrations for the 'Æneid,' fine as many are in feeling for line, are hopelessly niggled. And so with his heads: some may be delightful in their suggestiveness, others are irritating in their monotony and feebleness. The few cartoons for stained glass exhibited in the present collection might lead one to suppose that his designs are meant to serve as merest hints for Mr. Morris, so inferior are they to the windows themselves. This is unfortunate, for it is really when Mr. Burne-Jones has a definite space to adorn for a special purpose that he is most successful. A pianoforte, decorated by him with a lovely arrangement of scrolls and figures, and a large chest in *gesso*, with the panels designed by him and executed in color, are proofs of his supremacy in this kind of work. It is to be regretted that he has not devoted his talents more wholly to it.

But the important consideration is less Mr. Burne-Jones's own position than the result of this exhibition on the younger and rising generation of art-students. The effect of Rossetti's influence on Burne-Jones we know, and for that matter we have already seen something of the nature of the spell cast by Mr. Burne-Jones over a select few. To realize how baleful it is, one has but to look at the work of his son, of Mr. Strudwick, of one or two others who belong to the little clique ridiculed of old as the "greenery-yallery." Mr. Burne-Jones himself, like Rossetti, has certain qualities which make him great despite his shortcomings. But they are the very qualities which cannot be imitated; from him his followers acquire only his mannerisms, which they mistake to be his chief virtues. It would be far better for the student to begin by studying the work of men like Bonnat and Bouguereau, for, vapid and conventional as it is, the drawing is usually academically correct, the technique workmanlike. With a sound foundation, the student who has anything in him may be trusted to evolve a style for himself. On the other hand, the faithful copying of Mr. Burne-Jones's work could but teach him the crudities which have always stood in that artist's light. Unfortunately, sometimes it is not even Mr. Burne-Jones, but his imitator, who is studied.

The beauty of Burne-Jones's work speaks for itself. But its danger to others cannot be too strongly insisted upon. He is a marvellous exotic. Exotics have been produced throughout all the centuries, from Botticelli and onward. But it is not these men who advance art, although the best of them, like Puvis de Chavannes, are in no sense behind their age. The artists who really have the greatest power, and whose influence is the healthiest, are the men who give dignity and beauty to their own times and surroundings—men like Rembrandt, like Velasquez, like Corot, like Degas, like Whistler.

N. N.

THE DIARY OF THE DAUPHINESS.

PARIS, January 5, 1893.

IT was Victor Hugo who once spoke of what he called "la pitié suprême"—a pity which has its foundation in the lowest depths of human nature, which survives all revolutions, which becomes a tie between the conqueror and the conquered, between the victim and the executioner, which is nothing but the most dramatic expression of the frailty of human life, of the terrible mystery of existence, of the apparent injustice of destiny. I have never thought of the young children of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, shut up in the Temple, without feeling this "supreme pity." Whatever may be said of the King, of his want of comprehension of the affairs of state, or of Marie Antoinette, of her levity, her weaknesses, we all must feel that their young children, at least, were absolutely innocent and faultless; they became the victims of errors which they had not committed, of which they were even ignorant; and their destiny was marked by that awful fatality which the Greeks so often invoked in their admirable dramas. I can well conceive that all souvenirs of the young Dauphin and of his sister should now be considered almost sacred. M. de Chantelauze has written with pious care the history of the captivity and death of Louis XVII.; I have now before me a memoir written by his sister, Marie-Thérèse-Charlotte of France. The manuscript of this memoir is written in a copybook, on very coarse paper, with this title: "Mémoire écrit par Marie Thérèse Charlotte de France sur la captivité des princes et princesses, ses parents depuis le 10 août 1792 jusqu'à la mort de son frère arrivée le 9 juin 1795."

The Committee of Public Safety having decided that a woman should be placed near the daughter of Louis Capet, to be her companion, a lady offered herself, and was accepted. She gave as her name Madeleine Hilaire La Rochelle; she was the wife of Citizen Bocquet de Chauterenne (Hilaire de la Rochelle had served in the French navy). The child saw at once that Madame de Chauterenne was moved by a sentiment of pity and devotion; she soon became intimate with her, and called her Renète (her name was Renée). It was the painful duty of Madame de Chauterenne to inform Madame Royale of the death of her young brother. The scene is thus told by M. de Beauchesne, in his 'Louis XVII.':

"'Madame has no longer any relatives.'
"'And my brother?'
"'She has no brother.'
"'And my aunt?'
"'She has no longer any aunt.'"

This took place at a time when the Convention was negotiating with Austria. The liberty of Madame Royale was one of Austria's conditions; the Cabinet of Vienna offered a ransom of two millions; the French Government asked in exchange for the Princess the French prisoners delivered to Austria by Dumouriez, Sémonville, Maret, Beurnonville, and Drouet, the famous postmaster of Varennes. The Treaty of Bâle was ratified on the 28th of November, 1795, and it was agreed that the Princess should be exchanged at the Swiss frontier. She was allowed to choose a person who should accompany her. She chose Mme. de Sérent, whom she had always seen with her aunt, Madame Elisabeth.

Renète was not allowed to go with Madame Royale, as the Emperor of Austria had stipulated that none of the persons who had been with her during her captivity in the Temple should accompany her to Vienna.

"My dear good little Renète," wrote the Princess, the day before her departure, "don't be so afflicted. You augment my sorrow by your own. Can you believe that I will ever change towards you? No, never. I shall always remember with pleasure my little Renète. I hope to see you again. Nothing is impossible. . . . I thank you, my Renète, for all you have done for me during the past six months. I end, for I don't know what I am saying. To-day is a great day for me, and my head is confused. Adieu, handsome, good, sweet, amiable, gay, complacent, frank, charming Renète."

The Committee of Public Safety did not accept Mme. de Sérent, the Princess's companion, and chose Mme. de Soucy, the daughter of her former governess, Mme. de Mackau. On leaving her prison, the Princess left with her dear Renète the papers which are now published, and which were the diary of her captivity. She was placed under the guardianship of a captain of gendarmes, M. Méchin. She left Paris on the 18th of December; and, after a journey of six days, arrived at Huningue, a little town near Bâle. There she wrote to Mme. de Chauterenne:

"I was recognized the first day at Provins. You have no idea how people ran to see me. Some called me my dear lady, others my dear Princess. Some wept with joy, and I also was near weeping. . . . What a change from Paris to the departments. At Charenton people were already refusing to take the assignats. They murmur loudly against the Government. People regret their old masters, and even me, poor thing. They all seem grieved at my departure. I am known everywhere, notwithstanding the care of those who surround me. . . . Oh! my dear Renète, if you knew how I feel! What a pity that such a change should not have taken place earlier! I should not have seen my family perish with so many thousands of innocent people. . . . My companions are very worthy people. Our M. Méchin is a good man, but very timid; he is in constant fear lest the *émigrés* come and seize me, or the Terrorists kill me."

On December 26, 1795, the exchange took place, and the daughter of Louis XVI. was placed in the hands of the envoy of Austria, who signed this paper: "The undersigned, in virtue of the orders of his Majesty the Emperor, declares having received from M. Bacher, French ambassador delegated to this end, Madame the Princess Marie-Thérèse-Charlotte, daughter of his Majesty King Louis XVI."

The manuscript left in the hands of Mme. de Chauterenne remained in France till 1805. Madame asked for it then, and it was sent to Mittau. Madame herself made a copy of it, which she gave to Mme. de Soucy; she sent the manuscript back to Mme. de Chauterenne. In 1823 Mme. de Soucy had a few copies of the memoir printed. Madame, who had become the Duchesse d'Angoulême, was very much displeased and had all the copies bought up and destroyed. Two or three only were preserved. Mme. de Chauterenne had kept her manuscript faithfully, and she sent it to the Comte de Chambord a few months before he died. The Duchess of Madrid found it among the papers of her uncle, and allowed M. Gabriel de Saint-Victor to make a copy of it at Viareggio.

The diary begins, as we have said, on August 13, 1792, at the Temple. Madame gives the list of the persons who were shut up on that day. We find in it Mme. de Lamballe, Mme. de Tourzel and her daughter Pauline, the servants of the King, the Queen, and Mme. Elisabeth. Louis XVI. fortunately found a library in the prison. Marie Antoinette worked at some tapestry. A few days afterwards all the servants were sent away. The King remained alone with a gendarme. Mme. de Lamballe and Mme. de Tourzel were obliged to leave the Temple. "My father was no longer treated as King. He was not called 'Sire' or 'Your Majesty,' but 'Monsieur' or 'Louis.' The *municipaux* were always sitting in his room with their hats on their heads. They took from my father his sword, which he still had, and emptied his pockets." The jailer was named Rocher. "He tried in every way to torment my

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father. Sometimes he sang the Carmagnole, and, a thousand horrors! sometimes, as he knew my father did not like the smell of a pipe, he contrived to puff his smoke over him. There is no sort of small torment that he did not invent. My father bore everything mildly and forgivingly."

The prisoners were constantly insulted. They heard from time to time the sound of drums; they learned by bits the news of the outside world. One day they were dragged to the window, and the head of Mme. de Lamballe was shown them on a pike. At times a sentry gave them in secret some mark of affection—a word, a look. They learned of the establishment of the Republic on the 22d of September; soon after, Louis XVI. was separated from his wife and could see her only at meal times.

"My father," writes the Dauphiness, "rose at seven. He prayed, then dressed himself with my brother; they went up stairs and breakfasted with my mother. After breakfast my father went down with my brother and gave him lessons till eleven. My brother played till twelve; then we walked together, whatever the weather, while the guard was changed and the new guardians assured themselves that my father was in the Temple.

"The walk lasted till two, when we dined; after dinner, my father and mother played together trictrac or piquet. At four, my mother went up to her room with my brother, as my father generally slept at that time. At six, my brother came down, took lessons and played till supper. At nine, after supper, my mother undressed my brother and put him to bed. My father went to bed only at eleven."

What could have been the thoughts of the unfortunate prisoners who led this dull, quiet life? The monotony of it was broken only by insults and fears. The King's trial began in December; Louis XVI. showed the greatest calmness and fortitude during the whole of it. The sentence was announced to the King in his prison, first by his lawyer, M. de Malesherbes, and afterwards by Garat, the Minister of Justice. The King asked for a reprieve of three days, which was refused.

Madame gives very minute details as to the last moments of the King. On his way to the scaffold, he met a doorkeeper whom he had scolded a little the day before. He offered him his hand, and said, "Mathé, I am sorry to have offended you; I beg you to pardon me." On the road to the guillotine he read the prayers of the dying. Cléry, the King's servant, gave to Marie Antoinette the King's wedding ring and a lock of her own hair which he had always had on his person. I have no space nor have I the desire to enter into further details of the horrible drama. If ever the Dauphiness was accused of coldness, of hardness, when she was known afterwards in France as the Duchesse d'Angoulême, she can easily be forgiven. Such an infancy, such a youth must leave an indelible mark. There is a degree of forgiveness which borders on insensibility, I might almost say on immorality. The Duchesse d'Angoulême could not forget those days in the Temple, and the awful tragedy of which she was the innocent witness. She was, in one sense, more human than Louis XVIII., who took regicides into his councils. Those who disliked her during the Restoration disliked in her the living protest against the crimes of the Revolution. She lived but to suffer, and to her has fitly been applied the verse of Dante:

"Vedi che son un che piango."

Correspondence.

FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have twice referred to the article of Count Melchior de Vogüé upon the "Present Hour" in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, but I think you have not brought out its strongest point. It is most striking as showing how the problem of popular government, even if we allow for the difference of population and circumstances, is precisely the same in France and in the United States. After pointing out that the two dangers are from private combinations of capital on the one side, controlling government after the fashion of feudalism, and from the socialism and communism of labor on the other, he says that the real evil is the weakness of government as a mediating force, and exclaims:

"Where is the sacramental division of powers, O Royer-Collard! The Legislature has in every respect taken the place of the Executive, which is reduced to the lowest servitude. It had already encroached upon the judiciary by removals, and how it is now trying to absorb this third power is the topic of the day."

He, like almost all the other writers from Paris, says that these Panama scandals are made use of by Monarchists and Bonapartists, just as Boulanger was a while ago, in a desperate effort to upset the Republic. They are throwing mud at everybody, including President Carnot, and are moving heaven and earth to bring on a general election, expecting to get a majority of their own men. Meantime, the Chamber, notwithstanding its absorption of power, is in a state of panic like a flock of sheep, which panic is rapidly spreading to the country, and preparing for the recoil from anarchy to despotism which has made up the weary round of the last hundred years. Fortunately Minister Ribot, probably backed by the President, has refused to dissolve the Chamber, but the pressure is tremendous and the result doubtful. M. de. Vogüé then takes the next step:

"In our Babel, where every one gives a different opinion on public affairs, it is not difficult to discern under this cacophony the common want, the universal aspiration. What is needed is a firm and consistent guidance; and it is looked for only from a man. The mass of our people joins a horror of revolutions to the desire for a strong national and social protection, and, with the instinct of good sense, it believes in the efficiency of this protection only when it sees it embodied in a name, in a physiognomy, and above all in a heart. The élite has the same idea, because the élite, which knows itself well, feels itself to be still more feeble than the mass, and is more distrustful of its capacity to govern itself. They do not all say so; many are kept back in public by a sort of timidity, by a fear of connecting themselves with a recent and miserable occurrence, by old habits of language and style contracted in opposition under 'the tyrant.' All think so, even those who officially print or say the contrary. Which of us has not seen some publicist among his friends, still excited by the article he had just written on the dangers of personal power, lay down his pen and exclaim to himself, 'Where is the man?'

"For my part, I see nothing to be ashamed of. The shame is in thinking so poorly of this land of France as to decide *a priori* that henceforth in great national crises it can produce nothing but a baleful dictator, a military adventurer, or a politician without scruples. If the exasperation of discontent came near delivering a republic to a Boulanger, have we not seen republics defended and respected by a Cavaignac, a Washington? The President of the Republic makes but one mistake, that of ignoring his strength. Placed in his high position without intrigues and without noise, with a modest but unstained reputation, he has gradually strengthened himself and grown in public opinion, aided by his irreproachable attitude and the good fortune which has marked his official career. I believe I shall not be contradicted by any one who has passed through our rural departments within two years, when I say that but one name is there respected, potent, and popular, that of the inaugurator of the Exposition, of the Friend of the Tsar. Not all the machines which the skilled politicians could combine would stand against a direct word from the President.

"Suppose that, at the next crisis, when we have descended still some degrees lower in anarchy, the President should at last wish to reassure and govern the country; that he should compose a Cabinet of men of affairs, armed with a decree of dissolution: if these men are still obscure, what matter provided they are competent in their respective departments? I would wager all that I hold dearest in the world that, after such an act, the country consulted in the name of the President would send him a compact majority, docile in the hands of the chief of state."

There are several pages more like this extract, which, indeed, I have greatly condensed. Every word is golden, and cannot be too strongly commended to your readers. Might it not all have been written for this country? Certainly we are not in danger from socialism or foreign war or the machinations of priests, Monarchists, and Bonapartists. But we have a Congress floundering in a slough of tariff and silver and pension bills, where, as in all the State legislatures, the lobby of private interests flourishes with as much vigor and success as in France. And we have an enormous advantage in that the President, instead of being elected, as in France, by the houses, is the direct choice of the people. Suppose that, instead of sending humble messages to Congress, the President should address himself directly to his constituents, telling them that the real trouble in our politics is the anarchy of the legislature; that the guidance of legislation is just as much executive work as the mint and the post-office; and that if we are to have any sound finance, it must be through measures laid before Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury with a public demand for immediate debate. What sort of a response do you think we should get from the country?

Of course, the outcry would be as to the danger from executive power. Is it better that the President—who, after all, cannot get a law or a dollar of money without the assent of Congress—should have open and responsible power, or be limited to intrigue and office-trading with members and committees, which are now his only, though very powerful, means of influence? Is it better that power should be lodged with the Chief Magistrate intrusted with and responsible for administration, or with the Speaker, an officer of the House, whose election is based on his formation of the committees, the most corrupting power imaginable, who represents only one 340th of the country, and who is directly responsible for nothing whatever, whether in legislation or administration?

G. B.

Boston, January 14, 1893.

THE RESULTS OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: President Eliot, in the December *Forum*, states that universal education has "failed to produce general contentment and public happiness." It does not seem to me that the kind of happiness which flows from contentment is what education may be fairly expected to produce, but that rather, as he says later on, "it may be that general discontent is

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a necessary antecedent of social improvement, and a preliminary manifestation of increased knowledge and wisdom in all classes of the community." I do not think that "public education should mean the systematic training of all children for the duties of life," but, on the contrary, something supplementary to the narrowing influences of a purely practical or technical training which will be necessitated later on by the exigencies of life.

If there is "serious and general disappointment at the results of popular education," it would seem to me to be the consequence of a fundamental misunderstanding as to the nature of the results to be expected from it, and an insufficient appreciation of the intrinsic value of learning in itself, as compared with the practical or material benefits to be derived from it either by the individual or by the community at large. The intrinsic value of liberal culture is shown by the relatively low salaries which persons in literary or scientific pursuits are willing to accept for their services. Evidently such persons find something in their profession, be it contentment or progress, which they value more highly than the material comforts which an increase of income might give. Again, it is well known that the cost of education in our public schools is small in comparison with the sums which those who cannot have such education free are willing to pay for it. Does it not follow that public education has at least been successful from an economic point of view?

In stating some of the material advantages derived from education, Mr. Eliot says little or nothing about books and inventions, which may especially be called products of education. The value of one of the latter—the Bell telephone—which will soon belong to the public, is probably greater than the total amount (some $30,000,000) contributed by all the State legislatures of this country to the cause of higher education since the Declaration of Independence. Does any one doubt that the community has been amply repaid by inventions alone for the amounts expended upon public education, considered simply in the light of a business investment? But aside from the material advantages to be derived from education, is not the enormous issue of copyrights and patents in late years a proof of intellectual activity? As Mr. Eliot says: "We find on every hand evidences of increased intelligence in large masses of people." It seems to me that intelligence, not outward contentment, is the true test of the success of education.

There is, accordingly, some doubt in my mind as to Mr. Eliot's fundamental assumption that "education has not accomplished all that might fairly be expected from it"; and while I heartily agree with him that the introduction of a systematic development of certain mental faculties would be a great improvement in existing methods of instruction, I question in his article several minor points, which, perhaps, I may be allowed to mention without discussion.

First. While a judicious elimination of studies pursued chiefly for the sake of information is highly desirable, the extreme subordination of such studies seems to me unwise. Information, not observation, furnishes our principal store of facts, and "facts," as Mr. Eliot says, "diligently sought for and firmly established, are the only foundation for sound reasoning."

Second. There would seem to be no fundamental distinction between the faculty of "expressing one's thoughts clearly, concisely, and cogently," and that of "making a correct record of things observed."

Third. It seems to me desirable to recognize, under the head of reasoning, at least three distinct faculties, namely, *generalization*, met with in all studies which, like natural history, deal largely with classification; *explanation*, or the study of cause and effect, which constitutes the bulk of modern physical science; and *judgment*, or quantitative reasoning, exemplified in the treatment of statistics, the fair adjustment of accounts, and the solution of problems in accurate measurement.

Fourth. The importance of arithmetic in quantitative reasoning, and the lamentable deficiency of students in this particular, are to me sufficient ground why more, rather than less, time should be devoted to simple arithmetical operations in the schools.

Fifth. There seems to me to be considerable doubt as to the extent to which the substitution of one subject for another can be carried without prejudice to the training of those faculties which each subject is specially fitted to develop. Observation may be trained by Greek roots, or expression by chemical symbols, but how about the *amount* of training in each case?

In conclusion, I would point out two dangers which are closely related to what precedes, and seem to me likely to impair the future success of education. The first is the proposed adoption of the elective system by the preparatory schools, which will enable a student to follow his natural bent in strengthening those faculties in which he is strong and neglecting those in which he is weak. The second is an increasing tendency in higher institutions to adjust their curriculum, their hours of study, and even their standards of scholarship to the accommodation of those whose chief interests lie in society or athletics. If teachers and scholars do not uphold and respect the worth and dignity of education, by whom is it likely to be respected or upheld?—Yours truly,

HAROLD WHITING.

BERKELEY, CAL., December 31, 1892.

AN EDITORIAL OVERSIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the January number of the *Cosmopolitan* is an interesting article entitled "The Making of an Illustrated Magazine." On pages 268, 269, is the following in regard to selection of manuscripts for publication: "From the registering clerk they pass to the hands of an assistant editor, who gives each contribution a careful reading, and then sends to other readers for fresh judgment such manuscripts as seem to require supporting opinions. . . . After much work the manuscripts are assorted under three heads. . . . A consultation next follows with the editor-in-chief of the magazine, the doubtful manuscripts are carefully gone over," etc. From these quotations and from other matter on the same pages, we must infer that great care is used in making selections for this one of "the four great magazines."

In the same number of the *Cosmopolitan* is also another interesting article, entitled "The Confessions of an Autograph-Hunter," in which the writer exultingly describes his methods of collecting autographs—methods so dishonorable and confessedly so intended to deceive as to be little short of criminal. Are we not bound to believe that this selection somehow slipped in, unread by "an assistant editor," by "other readers," and also by "the editor-in-chief"?—Yours very truly,

D. S. KELLOGG.

PLATTSBURGH, N. Y., January 7, 1893.

THE ADVERB AND THE INFINITIVE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "F. H." not long ago declared that an Englishman, if he dislikes a particular word or phrase, is sure to assert that it had its origin in this country. Indeed, so used are we to having our British cousins point the finger of scorn, as an Americanism, at what was sufficiently good to have found favor with Shakspere and his fellows, that we have become tolerably callous. As constant dripping wears away a stone, so perhaps it is only by constant nagging that we can induce our cousins to look at objects as, in Mr. Arnold's phrase, in themselves they really are—so-called Americanisms included. Be that as it may, at all events the complaint of "F. H." has a certain application with regard to the locution about to be discussed—namely, the placing of an adverb or other word or words between the infinitive and its sign *to*. This locution, we learn from Mr. Andrew Lang, once had the honor of being the subject of a telegram from the British Government to its Commissioners in Washington who were negotiating a treaty in 1871. "The Home Government," writes Mr. Lang, in his 'Sir Stafford Northcote' (1890), "kept putting in their oar, and once—for which much may, by literary persons, be forgiven them—they telegraphed that in the treaty they would *not* endure adverbs between 'to' (the sign of the infinitive) and the verb. The purity of the English language they nobly and courageously defended" (vol. ii., p. 13).

Here we find the British Government posing as the defender of the English language against that American corruption of it about which Dean Alford took so melancholy a view. From the assumption that there is a sort of divine right by virtue of which the British Government becomes the arbiter as to the correct use of English, to the assertion that the locution in question has originated with, or is in some way peculiar to, American writers, the step is an easy one. If any one is disposed to take this step, let him first consider well a paper contributed by your correspondent above mentioned to the third volume of the *American Journal of Philology* (1882, pp. 17–24). Mr. Hall has there brought together a large number of examples of this locution, ranging from a period as early as the last quarter of the fourteenth century to the present day; and among the writers cited—to mention only the more reputable and those only who use the locution in their formal writings—are Matthew Arnold, Sir Thomas Browne, Burke, Coleridge, Madam d'Arblay, Defoe, De Quincey, Dr. Johnson, Macaulay, Ruskin, H. Spencer, Leslie Stephen, and Wordsworth.

But as the examples given by Mr. Hall are largely from the by-ways of literature, as none are from American writers, and as there still seems to be a hesitancy in acknowledging the wide extent to which the locution is used by reputable writers, perhaps a few more examples by way of supplement to those of Mr. Hall will not be amiss. Besides the passage quoted above, Mr. Andrew Lang has elsewhere expressed, in no uncertain terms, his opinion of the locution.

"He who aims at failure," he writes, in 'How to Fail in Literature' (1890), ". . . can hardly be too reckless of grammar, and should always place adverbs and other words between 'to' and the infinitive. . . . But some one may reply that several of our most popular novelists revel in the kind of grammar which I am recommending. This is undeniable, but certain people manage to succeed in spite of

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their own earnest endeavors and startling demerits. There is no royal road to failure. There is no rule without its exception, and it may be urged that the works of the gentlemen and ladies who 'break Priscian's head'—as they would say themselves—may be successful, but are not literature. Now it is about literature that we are speaking" (pp. 25, 26).

Could dogmatism go further than the implication that though a writer using the locution may be successful, yet the writing containing it cannot be literature? The Rev. John Earle, in his 'English Prose' (1890), though erroneously asserting that the locution came into general use about 1870, has this to say in its favor: "To conclude this section, there is one remark that should be made upon a phenomenon so novel and interesting. It is this: We must recognize in this innovation an instructive effort to satisfy the desire for greater lucidity" (p. 186). And in what is doubtless the most recent work on the subject, the 'Foundations of Rhetoric' (1892), Prof. A. S. Hill, though discussing the locution without dogmatism, yet seems unwilling to acknowledge its wide usage among writers of repute.

"This example," he says, "shows a common fault, one into which even good writers occasionally fall—that of putting an adverb or an adverbial phrase between 'to' and the infinitive—words so closely connected that they should not be separated. . . . Its prevalence has led some students of language to insist that good use sanctions, or, at least, condones, the practice of putting adverbial expressions between 'to' and the infinitive; and one well-known scholar has adduced what at first sight seems to be a formidable array of citations, ranging from the time of Wickliffe to the present day. On examination, however, it turns out that the names of some of the highest authorities on a question of good use—Addison, Goldsmith, and Cardinal Newman, for instance—are conspicuous by their absence; and that each of several other authors of highest repute is represented by only one example" (pp. 136, 138).

Though I am unable to adduce examples from the three writers specified, yet in the following list will be found the names of such reputable writers as Browning, Mrs. Browning, Byron, Hawthorne (?), O. W. Holmes, Keats, Lowell, Massinger, and Shakspere; while additional examples are given from such stylists as the late Matthew Arnold and Mr. Herbert Spencer:

"To bodily act." Shakspere, *Coriolanus* (1623), Act I., sc. ii., l. 5.
"To truly make." *Nero* (1624), Act II., sc. iii. (1888), p. 37.
"A dancer in the morning to well breathe you." Massinger, *Guardian* (1655), Act I., sc. ii. *Plays* (1889), vol. ii., p. 205.
"To rather pity and excuse, than blame me." B. Franklin (1738), *Works* (1887), vol. i., p. 477.
"To quite give," "to here unburthen," "to continually burst," "to entirely give," "to quite understand," "to nearly reach," "to certainly write," "to cheerfully, in all things serious, obey," "to either attach," "to shortly avail." Fanny Burney, *Early Diary* (1889), vol. i., pp. 18, 47, 122, 222, 252; vol. ii., pp. 11, 50, 51, 76, 86.
"To silently wish." Susan Burney (1779), *Early Diary of F. Burney*, vol. ii., p. 269.
"To under value the land." Washington (1797), *Writings* (1892), vol. xiii., p. 425.
"To slowly trace." Byron, *Childe Harold* (1812), Canto II., st. xxv.
"To vainly bleed." *Id.*, *Corsair* (1814), Canto I., st. xiii.
"To nightly call." Keats, *Endymion* (1818), Book I., l. 362.
"To half beg." *Id.*, *Cap and Bells* (1820), st. iv.
"To publicly express." Whittier, *Abolitionists* (1833), *Prose Works* (1889), vol. iii., p. 59.
"To really know." Browning, *Pippa Passes* (1841), *Poems* (1887), vol. i., p. 366.
"To tamely acquiesce." *Id.*, *Colombe's Birthday* (1844), Act V. (cited in Hill's *Principles of Rhetoric*).
"To never trust." Mrs. Browning, *Aurora Leigh* (1856), Book viii., *Poems* (1890), vol. vi., p. 308.
"To so present," "to rightly connect." H. Spencer (1852), *Essays* (1891), vol. ii., pp. 334, 339.
"To vaguely conceive." *Id.* (1861), *First Principles*, Part ii., ch. iii., p. 170.
"To forcibly dismember." J. L. Motley (1862), *Correspondence* (1889), vol. ii., p. 102.
"To rightly see," "to fairly try," "to finally git." Lowell, *Poems* (1890), vol. i., p. 219; vol. ii., pp. 266, 311.
"To really understand." O. W. Holmes (1860), *Elsie Venner* (1891), p. 271.
"To utterly extirpate," "to thoroughly republicanize." *Id.*, *Pages from an Old Volume of Life* (1891), pp. 107, 404.
"To half do." *Id.* (1867), *Guardian Angel* (1891), p. 393.
"To at least make." N. Hawthorne (about (1864), *Septimius Felton* (1883), p. 372. (This piece was never revised by Hawthorne, and was not published till after his death.)
"To unwittingly disparage." M. Arnold (1869), *Culture and Anarchy* (1883), p. 150.
"To actually follow." *Id.* (1872), *Literature and Dogma* (1883), p. 234.
"To neither strive." *Id.*, *Poems* (1883), vol. ii., p. 188.
"To directly serve." *Id.*, *Discourses in America* (1885), p. 107.
"To similarly degrade." J. C. Collins, *Introd. to Tourneur's Plays and Poems* (1878), vol. i., p. xxix.
"To entirely obliterate." H. Van Laun, *Gil Blas* (1886), vol. i., p. 300.
"To formally advocate," "to so enfeeble," "to sharply draw." Rev. A. V. G. Allen, *Continuity of Christian Thought* (1885), pp. 86, 159, 221.
"To profoundly modify," "to seriously modify," "to considerably reduce." Sir R. S. Ball, *Story of the Heavens* (1886), pp. 279, 426, 481.
"To really consider." H. C. Lodge, *George Washington* (1889), vol. i., p. 102.
"To more than counterbalance." T. R. Lounsbury (1891), *Studies in Chaucer* (1892), vol. i., p. 447.
"To successfully carry." *Nation*, 1 Dec., 1892, p. 418.

So far as appears, then, the first use of the locution by an American writer was more than a hundred years after its appearance in the Shakspere First Folio; and not until well into this century did it, so far as the present writer is aware, find its way into formal writings in this country. But, whether used much or little by American writers, an examination of the examples given by Mr. Hall and those given above shows how utterly groundless and absurd was the alarm caused the British Government by the fear lest corruption should, in this respect, creep into the language from this side of the water. How often must our cousins across the Atlantic be reminded that, in the words of Lowell, *our* ancestors "unhappily could bring over no English better than Shakspere's"?

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, January 8, 1893.

"SNIBAR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Most of Lewis and Clark's names are absolutely determinable, both etymologically and geographically; a few have hitherto defied conjecture. The worst of them are those that look well, but are not what they seem. One of the most curious cases is the name of the creek in Missouri called by the explorers Eau Beau, translated Clearwater. Nothing could be clearer, apparently; but here is a snag of a singular shape. Elsewhere in the Biddle text the same creek is called Hubert's—and there is always a danger-signal in a case of such different words. I find that Eau Beau is one form, and Hubert's another, of the same name and the same word—a word which is also hidden in "Snibar," present appellation of the creek in question. The curious history is this: Lewis's map of 1806 (never published till November 4, 1887) inscribes Bau-beaux. The Lewis and Clark codices, in manuscript, yield Euebeaux's, Eubert's, Eue-bert, etc. Gass, 1807, prints Du Beau or Du Bois. Pike's map, 1810, has Eabeace. Brackenridge, 1814, Ibar's. An unidentified map before me inscribes Aux Héberts. Maj. Long, 1823, prints Au Barre, with Chenai (misprint for chenal, slough) prefixed. Beck's Gazetteer, 1823, has Chenel Ebert. Wetmore's Gazetteer, 1837, speaks of Schuyte Aber, and has quite a story of an old trapper, one Aber, who came to this creek and supposed it was a slough or cut-off of the Missouri. Here I presume that Schuyte is a misprint for Schnyte, and that a form of German Schnitte, a cut, slice. The doubt is that there was a German in the country before 1804; for with scarcely an exception the names that have reached us were then French, if not Indian or English. I should imagine the person to have been a Canadian voyageur, or coureur des bois. But, whoever he was, and whatever his name, the creek was called after him; and every name above is a form of his name—Eau Beau, Bau-beaux, Euebeaux, Euebert, Eubert, Hubert, Hebert, Du Beau, Du Bois, Eabeace, Ibar, Au Barre, Ebert, Aber—and "Snibar" is the same, with Chenal prefixed. This word is also found as Sniabar and Snybar.

After identification of the words from Lewis and Clark to Long, my attention was called to the other forms, in Beck and in Wetmore, by Mr. A. J. Hill of St. Paul, to whom I wrote. Accepting the chenal element in Snibar, Mr. Hill furnishes two other cases, which would confirm the view here taken, were that required. There is a Snicarty, a bayou of the Mississippi, in Pike County, Ill., otherwise given as Che nail-ecarte in Beck; and a certain Sny Magill in Iowa.

ELLIOTT COUES.

No. 1726 N STREET, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Notes.

DEFINITIVE announcement is now made of Dr. Elliott Coues's new edition of Lewis and Clark's 'Travels,' to be published in this city by Francis P. Harper. It will contain *all* of the original Philadelphia edition of 1814—preface, Jefferson's memoir of Lewis, history of the expedition, maps, plates, and appendices; together with a new preface, bibliography, memoirs of Lewis, Clark, and Sergeant Gass, copious notes (historical, geographical, ethnological, zoölogical, botanical), a new map, new portraits and other illustrations, and a complete index (the first ever made). The edition will consist of 1,000 copies in four volumes (the maps and index making one); 200 copies on hand-made linen paper, the rest half as costly. It will be ready in the spring.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish, for subscribers only, the Works of Fenimore Cooper in thirty-two volumes, octavo, from new type and with new designs by well-known artists. Six volumes will be ready next month.

D. Appleton & Co. announce a 'Dictionary of Every-Day German and English,' by Martin Krummacher, Ph.D., with an outline of grammar and several pages of "travel talk."

Macmillan will speedily publish a collected edition of the poems of William Watson, including his recent volume, 'Lachrymæ Musarum.'

Ginn & Co. have in press Leigh Hunt's 'Answer to the Question, "What is Poetry?"' including remarks on versification, by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

Tait, Sons & Co. will publish directly 'The Parsifal of Richard Wagner,' from the French of Maurice Kufferath.

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'Early Maryland, Civil, Social, and Ecclesiastical,' by Theodore C. Gambrall, D.D., of Baltimore, will be published shortly by Thomas Whittaker, who also announces 'The Private Life of the Great Composers,' by John Frederick Rowbotham, with portraits of the fifteen subjects.

Mr. A. W. Pollard, author of 'The History of the Title-Page,' is editing a series of "Books about Books," the first of which will be 'Great Book Collectors,' by Mr. Charles J. Elton and Miss Mary Augusta Elton. Among the later volumes will be one on 'Book Plates,' by Mr. W. J. Hardy, and another on 'Bindings,' by Mr. H. P. Horne. There are to be six volumes in all, of about two hundred pages each, and containing from ten to thirty illustrations. The series is published in London by Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. From the prospectus it seems likely to be severely British in its scope, neglecting the French on one side and the American on the other. From Paris we have the news that M. Ernest Thoinan has in preparation an elaborate work on 'Les Relieurs Français (1500-1800),' in writing which he has been aided by the staff of the National Library. In Paris, also, M. Octave Uzanne has published at last his 'Physiologie des Quais.' In the spring the *Century* will begin a series of papers on the art of the bookbinder, to be abundantly illustrated and to give full attention to the development of the art here in the United States. Articles on the subject are also announced to appear during the year in the *Portfolio*.

Many of these books will furnish additions for the second edition of 'A Bibliography of Book-binding,' which Miss S. T. Prideaux has recently published (London: James Bain). To the catalogue of the loan collection of bookbindings exhibited at the Burlington Fine Arts Club, two years ago, Miss Prideaux contributed an interesting historical introduction; and there are other papers of hers on the same subject which show that she is a student as well as a lover of the bibliopegic art. This bibliography is fuller than any of its predecessors in French, and it is, we believe, the first serious attempt at a bibliography in English. It lacks classification, being a mere list of titles of books, pamphlets, and articles in periodicals arranged more or less alphabetically. For a subject of this sort, in which the interest is both artistic and historical, the chronological arrangement seems advisable, and so does a separation of the languages in which the entries are written. Despite the higgledy-piggledy appearance of the page, Miss Prideaux's list is useful and welcome. For a British work it is unusually abundant in its American material.

The need of an index to Von Holst's seven-volume 'Constitutional History of the United States' has been so urgent that it is almost ungracious to criticise the eighth volume, containing in 356 pages an Index and List of Authorities, compiled by Mr. Ira Hutchinson Brainerd (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). The truth is, however, that Mr. Brainerd displays no aptitude for his task, either in pithy selection and abstraction, or in arrangement, or in typographical elegance. His sub-entries are sometimes alphabetically ordered, sometimes not, and sometimes a mixed practice prevails. The alphabetical order is of no value whatever, as a rule, being purely subjective, whereas in an historical index the grouping should be above all topical and chronological. The confusion we have intimated is well illustrated under Zachary Taylor, the first entry being "character as a general," the twelfth, "death," the thirteenth, "presidency"; then, after numerous entries for this period, comes "Mexico, invades," and the war in detail, then more Presidential items, then "Texas, is ordered to protect, anticipating annexation," etc. We deeply regret that a standard work which has suffered so much from inadequate translation, should be so badly served in a hardly less important particular.

The number of articles reprinted as books from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' justifies the common characterization of that work as a congeries of books. The two latest reprints to come under our notice are the Earl of Selborne's 'Hymns, their History and Development in the Greek and Latin Churches, Germany and Great Britain,' a dainty little volume with rubricated borders (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), and Mr. P. G. Hamerton's 'Drawing and Engraving: A Brief Exposition of Technical Principles and Practice' (same publishers). Both (or rather all three) essays have undergone some revision and enlargement, and Mr. Hamerton has to great advantage introduced a large number of cuts, steel engravings, and etchings by way of illustration. In his section on wood-engraving, he ignores the American school, unless his allusive censure be recognition, and he really cannot have seen the highest products of it, or he never would have said that the art "cannot give the delicacy of [the steel line-engraver's] lines." We believe that ninety-nine persons in a hundred would take Kruell's "Webster" for a steel engraving even after examining it; yet it is pure wood-engraving, and not in the least imitative of the sister art. In an appendix Mr. Hamerton has a comment on Mr. Ruskin, apropos of "the law of progress in drawing," and gives graphic proofs of Turner's liberties with landscape as exemplified in his Rivers of France.

Other reprints on our table are Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Superstition and Force,' in a fourth edition, not much altered, but considerably extended and perfected under certain heads, making it more than ever a standard authority (Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co.); the first volume of four into which, for popular acceptability, Mr. Charles Booth has recast his 'Life and Labor of the People—in London' (Macmillan), this portion relating to East, Central, and South London; the 'Letters of James Smetham,' in Globe octavo form (Macmillan); Scott's 'Antiquary,' in Black's Dryburgh Edition (Macmillan), with illustrations by Paul Hardy; and 'Sketches by Boz' in the younger Dickens's reprint of the first editions of his father's novels (Macmillan). Mr. Dickens's Introduction gives interesting particulars about this collection, of which the first sketch appeared nearly sixty years ago; and reminds us that "Boz" (being short for Moses pronounced with a cold in the head) should be sounded with a long *ō*.

In a style consonant with its source is the neat volume of 'Tales of Adventure and Stories of Travel of Fifty Years Ago,' illustrated with twenty plates from "the Annuals" (London: Sampson Low; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). A certain degree of refinement is associated with steel engravings such as were used, to the happy fostering of the art, to adorn the obsolete Annuals of our mothers and grandmothers. The plates here brought together embrace designs by Stothard, Corbould, Wilkie, Cattermole, Prout, Turner, Collins, Maclise, Roberts, Sir T. Lawrence, and others, and in several cases—notably Coleridge's verses on "The Garden of Boccaccio," Barry Cornwall's "On a Lady Playing the Guitar," and Thackeray's on "The Happy Anglers"—we have the poems written to order to the plates. Spain colors largely the prose selections, to which, among others, Scott, Thomas Roscoe, Lord John Manners, Byron, and William Howitt (who writes on Mrs. Landon) contribute. The sum of the whole is not weighty, and gives an idea of the little worth of the neglected residuum; but the collection is well contrived to fix the impression of an outlived age and literary medium. The editor gives a useful list of the Annuals, beginning with the *Forget-Me-Not* (1822-1847), and ending with the *Amaranth* (1859).

Zola's new novel, 'Docteur Pascal,' which brings to its end the long history of the Rougon-Macquart family, will make its first appearance in the *Revue Hebdomadaire*.

The *Festschrift* of the Geographical Society of Berlin, in commemoration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, prepared by Dr. Konrad Kretschmer, has just appeared in two sumptuous volumes (Berlin: Kühl; London: Sampson Low & Co.), under the title 'Die Entdeckung Amerikas in ihrer Bedeutung für die Geschichte des Weltbildes.' The first volume (pp. xxiii, 471) contains the text, the opening chapter of which gives an account of the cosmography of the ancients, beginning with the Homeric period, and ending with Seneca's prophecy in his 'Medea.' Then follow chapters on mediæval cosmography, the knowledge of the Atlantic Ocean before Columbus, the geographical conceptions entertained by Columbus's contemporaries, and especially by Toscanelli, etc. An interesting and instructive description is also given of the oldest maps of America to 1520. The second and somewhat larger volume is the atlas, a collection of forty maps, twenty-five of which are now published for the first time. They are admirably done in colors and are exceedingly creditable to the printers, Giesecke & Devrient of Leipzig. Indeed, the entire work is a superb specimen of typography, well worthy of the learned society from which it emanates and of the event which it celebrates. The price is 75 marks.

'Cristoforo Colombo e le sue Ceneri,' by Monsignor Rocco Cocchia (Chieti: Ricci), is another contribution to the discussion of the vexed question of the identity of the bones transferred from the Cathedral of San Domingo to Havana in 1877 with the remains of the discoverer of America. The author, who belongs to the Order of the Capuchins and is now Archbishop of Chieti, was present at the disinterment, and is convinced that the body of Columbus was the one actually removed. He has already published two works on the subject, 'Descumbrimento de los verdaderos restos de Cristóbal Colón' in 1877, and 'Los Restos de Cristóbal Colón' in 1879, and in the volume before us amplifies his former statements without adding anything essentially new.

From the *Athenæum's* report (issue of December 31) of the debates at the Head Masters' Conference, in London, it appears that the discipline in English leaves something to be desired in England as well as with us. There was great unanimity of feeling on the subject, "though every speaker took the opportunity of pointing out that his own school was not guilty of neglecting English."

One may learn something from the December *Macmillan's* concerning the Oxford of the tropics. Crowning a wind-swept plateau on the eastern coast of Barbados, three hundred feet above the sea, stand the impressive buildings of Codrington College, the most venerable pile of collegiate buildings in the British colonial

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empire. Founded in 1710 by Christopher Codrington, Captain-General of the islands, it began with seminary buildings merely; the West Indian population being too scanty and ignorant to benefit at once by a college. Hurricanes more than once wrought ruin in what had been completed. The College, actually built in 1742, did not really begin to rank as the Alma Mater of the West Indies until 1829, and it is now in affiliation with the University of Durham. The students of Codrington College devote themselves not only to divinity, but to medicine, surgery, and arts as well, obtaining from the only institution in the West Indies empowered to bestow it a university degree. The beautiful buildings and grounds, the avenue of palms and the rich vegetation, the scholastic quiet of chapel and library, furnish a retreat both noble and dignified. From its walls have gone forth three-fifths of all the present staff of West Indian clergy.

The house of Dietrich Reimer (Hoefer & Vohsen), Berlin, have begun a third edition of Dr. R. Kiepert's "Grosser Hand-Atlas," to consist of 45 maps published in parts of five each in the course of the present year. Part I. shows Hanover and Schleswig-Holstein, Denmark and South Sweden, Northwestern Africa, North America, Central America, and the West Indies. These sheets are of uneven date as respects engraving, but all have been overhauled and brought down to date, and among those yet to come some will be wholly new for the present edition. Two innovations are to be praised—a bold engraving of the name and number of each map upon the back; and for each a special index of names, which records the population also, and which is accompanied by a body of condensed statistics respecting each country, prepared by Dr. Paul Lippert, Librarian of the Prussian Statistical Bureau. The Atlas, therefore, becomes a gazetteer. Besides the map of this continent, one of the Eastern United States is promised. Of the mechanical execution of the newer sheets it would be useless to speak; they are beautiful specimens of cartography.

A correspondent writes: "In your account of some educational benefactions at the close of the year 1892, in your issue of January 5, you omitted to mention a gift of $125,000 to the medical school of Western Reserve University at Cleveland, Ohio, by Mr. John L. Woods of that city.. Mr. Woods has given the University in all $400,000. During the year 1892 Western Reserve University received in gifts $300,000, among which was another gift from Mr. Woods of $50,000 to the College for Women."

—In the January *Atlantic*, Mr. Sherman S. Rogers pays the last tribute to George William Curtis as the leader of the movement for civil-service reform, whose services in behalf of it, he thinks, "will constitute his highest claim to the gratitude of his countrymen." Mr. Rogers sketches the history of the movement from its source in the resolution of Mr. Jenckes through the Congresses and Administrations of the last twenty years, and describes Curtis as the centre about which the work for reform gathered and went on; and he brings out the fact that it was not so much the political sagacity of Curtis as his elevation of motive and charm of character that won him confidence and leadership among younger men. Mr. Parkman's "Feudal Chiefs of Acadia" opens another episode of the history which he gives life to, and promises a continued topic of interest, and Mr. John Fiske says the word of praise and honor for the historian Freeman with the ardor of an admirer of so varied and generalizing a mind. History is also a third time touched in the study of Cola di Rienzi, which Mrs. Preston and her collaborator add to their series of portraits. In the whole number, perhaps the most attractive piece of writing is Sir Edward Strachey's brief contribution to the eulogy of "Love's Labor Lost," in which mood, substance, and style alike recall days of real culture in literature, and disclose a rare feeling for the values of poetic drama. The paper is neither of criticism nor of scholarship, but springs from pure appreciation of Shakspere's youthful temperament, and delight in it for its own sake—a kind of composition (neither seeking to get nor to give instruction) which is now seldomer met with than in any literary period hitherto, because of the decline of taste.

—In *Harper's*, Mr. Edward F. Waite writes of the history of the pension laws of the country and of their administration with much detail, and endeavors to give a clear view of the present state of legislation and how it came to be what it is. The subject is treated, without any bias, as a large item of the public accounts in respect to which fuller and more exact information ought to exist in the community, with a view to sound judgment of the measures taken and the methods of administering under them; and the article itself is therefore an important one and should receive wide attention. Theodore Child gives a brief general survey of the quarters of Paris occupied by the prolétariat, and one or two scenes from the life led there, by which he brings out the character of the small industrial groups and the manner in which a family pieces out a living in honesty. Mr. Poultney Bigelow describes very feelingly the annoyances of being watched by Russian police spies, and tells why he and Mr. Remington left Russia without doing what they had intended. Mrs. Annie Fields writes pleasantly a few words of reminiscence of Tennyson in which the more cordial side of his nature is illustrated.

—The *Century* contains a paper upon Whittier from the pen of Mrs. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps Ward, which exhibits his personality more frankly and clearly than any other that we have noticed. The extracts from his correspondence, brief as they are, hold out a promise of interest in his letters which is very welcome, and disclose his traits as a man with great attractiveness. Mr. Talcott Williams writes of the "Kindergarten Movement" very elaborately. The topic is one of local interest in this city, and should secure attention from those who have sympathy with the work now being done here in this direction. The younger brother of Millet tells in a simple way the story of the early life of the great artist. His surroundings in boyhood, the character of his parents, and his attachment to the peasant ways in which he grew up are the principal things dealt with, and serve to explain the ground of his nature out of which the special feeling shown in his art came. The letters of Gen. Sherman and his brother during the war continue, and reproduce history as it was when it was current, with graphic effect.

—In *Scribner's* the recollections of Lincoln penned by the Marquis de Chambrun, who was with him during the last visit to Petersburg and saw him then familiarly, are very lifelike, and, though they contain nothing new, are welcome as further illustrations of the man, and especially as being the record of impressions made on a foreigner. The writer was perhaps as much impressed by the way in which the country bore the loss of its greatest man as by anything in Lincoln himself. Mrs. Mario's description of the poor of Naples is a contribution to the chapter of misery now appearing in this magazine, in which philanthropy's mantle of rose-color is put to less use than has been the case with other papers, and the truth of the matter stands out in its nakedness. This is the best way. Other important topics are the Peary Relief Expedition and "The Impressions of a Decorator in Rome."

—That *villa*, 'manor,' a little metamorphosed, is occasionally a constituent of English names of places, was suggested some years ago by Mr. H. C. Coote, in his 'Romans of Britain'; and the suggestion is not unreasonable, to the thinking of the eminent Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Oxford, the Rev. John Earle, who has devoted a short article to the matter in the pages of the *Economic Journal*. Of *-well*, in mediæval times *-welle*, and in Anglo-Saxon *-wella*, *-wel*, *-wyl*, 'fountain, or stream of running water,' it is an accepted fact that we have examples in *Ashwell*, *Blackwell*, *Bothwell*, *Bridewell*, *Coldwell*, *Fulwell*, *Hanwell*, *Hartwell*, and *Hawkwell*, to instance a few from among numerous cases. As to the source and the sense of the second member of these words, Prof. Earle raises no question. In *Wiltûn*, now *Wilton*, however, he inclines to find what is equivalent to the rather tautological *villa-town*, with which, in one respect, *Sharpness Point* is comparable; and he would restore *Wellington* as *Wellingatûn*, 'the town of the villa-folk.' Moreover, there are the Essex and Norfolk *Wella*, *Wela* in Yorkshire, the old *Welingaham* and *Wellingewic*, with *Sidwell*, *Eastwell*, etc., in all which, on grounds that are alleged, he is disposed to see the word *villa*, as also in *burhwella*, a term occurring in a land charter. It being, as he states, acknowledged that *-wyl* and *-weil* sometimes stand, in the German nomenclature, for *villa*, it seems by no means unlikely that the Latin word may be "obscurely imbedded" in certain British placenames, also. This view, though at present little better than a probable conjecture, will perhaps, on farther investigation, be clearly demonstrated.

—It is more than twelve years since Thomas Hodgkin issued the first volumes of his work on 'Italy and Her Invaders'; and now he reissues them in a second, enlarged edition (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), and in a form which seems likely to be final. At the time of their publication we spoke at length of Mr. Hodgkin's volumes, so that it is not necessary for us to review them now; but we can commend again the careful scholarship, the justice, and the clear style in which they are written. The work has already taken the position of a standard for that intricate and often obscure period of history from the fall of the Roman Empire to the coming of Charlemagne. In his revision Mr. Hodgkin has expanded his first volume into two, but we do not observe that he has added any irrelevant matter; on the contrary, the specialist will find here the results of much patient investigation of original sources, and the more general reader will not be overpowered by a mass of petty details. The final chapter of the second volume, in which the author discusses the causes of the fall of the Western Empire, is worthy of any living English historian. Froude might surpass it in style—though in the matter of Froude's style we do not follow the prevailing fashion of laudation—but we should look in vain to Froude for conclusions so sober and

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statements so fair as Mr. Hodgkin here presents. To have succeeded, after Gibbon, in giving a satisfactory picture of the stupendous spectacle of the dissolution of Rome is an achievement whose magnitude cannot yet be exactly defined. Gibbon's work describes the decay of the Imperial world-system; Mr. Hodgkin, taking the other point of view, makes more prominent the manifestations of the new forces of Teutonism which were to supersede the failing forces of Rome and to build up a new Christendom.

—Among our larger, but not largest, cities, five show preëminent growth during the last decade. Those five are Minneapolis, St. Paul, Omaha, Kansas City, and Denver. These cities, and no others, had so grown as to rank for the first time among the twenty-eight places each numbering more than 100,000 inhabitants. They thus displaced five of the cities which in 1880 had stood in the foremost twenty-eight, namely, Albany, Richmond, New Haven, Lowell, and Worcester. Still, all these ousted cities showed a fair increment. Their relative decline during the decade in the list of cities was as follows: Albany fell from No. 21 to No. 29; Richmond from No. 25 to No. 34; New Haven from No. 26 to No. 35; Lowell from No. 27 to No. 37; and Worcester from No. 28 to No. 32. The decline in relative rank was greatest in Lowell. On the other hand, the advance of Minneapolis was from No. 38 to No. 18; St. Paul from No. 45 to No. 23; Omaha from No. 63 to No. 21; Kansas City from No. 30 to No. 24; and Denver from No. 50 to No. 26. The progress of Omaha, which in ten years outstripped forty-two competitors in the race for population, was altogether unprecedented. All the losses were in the old East—in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and Virginia; all the gains were in the new West—in two cities on the Mississippi, two on the Missouri, and one far beyond it.

LANCIANI'S ROME.

Pagan and Christian Rome. By Rodolfo Lanciani. Profusely illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

It is the popular impression that the excavations on ancient sites which have been carried on so extensively during the past twenty-five years, have had for their object the discovery of purely ancient or classical civilizations. Lanciani's new work is a proof that, so far as Rome is concerned, the popular impression is, as usual, mistaken. The book contains six chapters with the following titles: Pagan Shrines and Temples, Christian Churches, Imperial Tombs, Papal Tombs, Pagan Cemeteries, Christian Cemeteries, and an introductory chapter on the Transformation of Rome from a pagan into a Christian city. The main idea of the book is to trace the course of this transformation, and to show that it did not take the world by surprise. "It was the natural result of three centuries. . . . It was not a revolution or a conversion in the true sense of these words; it was the official recognition of a state of things which had long ceased to be a secret." In describing the change, the author's intention is "to mention only subjects illustrated by recent or little-known discoveries, or else to select such representative specimens as may help the reader to compare pagan with Christian art and civilization."

It is almost impossible to overestimate the amount of material which Lanciani had at hand to help in the compilation of this book. Some idea of it as mere magnitude may be gained from two or three concrete examples. Nobody needs to be told what a fertile field for the study of the civilization of an ancient people is afforded by its tombs. In 1887, when the Corso d'Italia was opened, 855 tombs were discovered in nine months. Scarcely less important for the same study in Italy are the *favissae* of temples, the vaults in which were buried by the thousand terracotta or bronze objects which had been hung up on the temple walls as "ex-votos." Periodically, when no space was left for the daily inflow of votive offerings, the priests were forced to have a house-cleaning, and to get rid of the old collection in order to make room for a new one. In the temple of Juno at Veii, there were no vaults, but the stuff was carted away and thrown over the cliff on which the temple stands into the valley below. Thus was formed a regular dump-heap, which, even after two centuries of explorations, was still two hundred feet long, fifty feet wide, and three or four feet deep. From it four thousand objects were taken in a fortnight's campaign in 1889, and twice as many left behind as worthless. Among the objects preserved were models of every part of the human body, as well as entire human figures, alone or in groups, dressed or undressed, some with movable limbs; there were also figures of animals, toilet articles, and sacred utensils of every sort. Still another source of knowledge lies, of course, in inscriptions, and of Christian inscriptions alone we are told that De Rossi, the great authority in this branch, has studied more than 15,000, and that there is still a yearly addition of 500 to the stock.

To pass from mere numbers, among the most important or interesting of recent discoveries on the pagan side are the remains of the temple of Isis, with its *cynocephalae*, obelisk, and the sphinx of the unfortunate Amasis; the shrine of the oath-god Semo Sancus; the tomb of Ecloge, Nero's old nurse, who, with two other women, buried the tyrant's body when all others had deserted him; the prehistoric cemeteries of the Viminal and Esquiline; the tomb of Platorinus, magistrate under Augustus, which once contained also the remains of Caepio, famous in court intrigues under Tiberius; the tomb of the "wonderful boy," Sulpicius Maximus, inscribed with the Greek verses which he extemporized at Domitian's Capitoline games. The account of him reminds one of that other precocious boy, John Evelyn's son, who, at the age of five, "had a stronge passion for Greek," and "wept for sorrow" on being told that Plautus was too hard for him to read. Then, too, we find the record of the discovery in 1890 of the inscription commemorative of the Secular Games—the festival for which Horace wrote the "Carmen Saeculare." Lanciani gives us a full account of this festival, based upon the inscription itself, with its delightful line:

CARMEN·COMPOSVIT·Q·HORATIVS·FLACCVS

It was a line in this inscription that finally settled the question about *Roma Quadrata*, which, we now know, was the name of an altar and not the name of the Palatine city itself. It is probable that Lanciani is right in supposing that the remains of the old altar lie buried deep under the convent of the nuns of the Visitation. We think also that his theory is correct about the disposition made of the enormous mass of earth which Trajan removed to make room for his forum. It was used to cover up a whole tract, serving as a cemetery, and lying between the Salaria and the Pincian. The level of this tract was thus raised by some twenty-five feet; the upper strata, continuing to be used as a cemetery, contained tombs of the time of Hadrian and later; the lower, tombs of the republic and early empire. Among these later was unearthed in 1885 the mausoleum of the Lucilii.

Turning now to Christian remains, we hear much of the Catacombs. The earliest discovery of catacombs was in 1578, and this is the date of the beginning of Christian archæology. The importance and interest of the Catacombs, with their frescoes, sarcophagi, and inscriptions, are too well known to call for more than mention here. Among early Christian buildings we are given accounts of the origin and remains of private oratories, the "houses of prayer" in which the Gospel was first preached in Apostolic times—famous among them being the house of Pudens, who is mentioned in the Epistle to Timothy; over it was built St. Pudentiana. In connection with his description of this house, remains of which were found in 1870, Lanciani explains how the shape of the oratories, whose general plan was like that of all other Roman houses, may have suggested the form of the modern church. The *tablinum* became the apse, the *atrium* the nave, and the wings of its peristyle the aisles. This theory is attractive, but perhaps it does not take sufficient account of the basilica. Other interesting buildings were the oratories and chapels built over the tombs of martyrs, and the houses of these martyrs themselves, such as that of John and Paul on the Cælian, a full account of which has appeared in the *American Journal of Archæology*. Of a different nature is the author's account of the earliest representations of Christ, of an utterly different type from the modern conception, which grew up in the fourth century. Descriptions of the churches of Rome, in their early and present state, abound throughout the book; more than a page is devoted to this subject in the index. St. Peter's holds, of course, the place of honor, and the account of its development is full of interest. Another interesting section of the book deals with the conversion of pagan monuments, especially temples, into churches. From his experience of twenty-five years of active exploration, Lanciani is emboldened to state that every pagan building which was capable of giving shelter to a congregation was transformed at one time or another into a Christian church or chapel.

Given such material and a man who has had such chances to study it, we should expect a most scholarly and interesting book. Interesting it certainly is; the style is charming, and, in spite of an obscurity here and there, when we remember that the author is a foreigner his mastery of our idiom must be matter for admiration. Further, the excellent illustrations are a great addition to the work, which, with its handsome "Roman" binding, large type, and fine paper, shows that nothing has been grudged which the mere bookmaker's art has to offer. But in method of treatment and in exactness of scholarship we find much to be desired. The author does not in general pursue a subject according to the comparative method, which in the study of a past civilization is the distinctive mark of modern scientific research; rarely, except in the matter of church architecture, does he trace cause from effect or effect from cause. A great opportunity for such treatment was here offered by a city whose history covers almost the whole period of which man has positive knowledge. Origins, survivals, reappearances, and disappearances of customs, methods, and habits are

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to be found all along the line, early and late. In this direction the author misses his opportunity, and his work will serve merely as material on which others may build. But probably the book was never intended for serious students; in fact, it bears many of the marks of a "popular" book. Archæologists and many literary scholars will find in it practically nothing that is new to them, but only the old dressed out somewhat more gayly than usual.

But if it was meant for the general reader, we have the right to demand a more than ordinary degree of scrupulous exactness from the author, because his public is defenceless against the prestige which a statement from him carries with it. Now, there are in this book a good many statements in which archæological enthusiasm goes too far, and which will not bear the test of a sober investigation. Thus, at the very outset, the assertion is made that as early as the reign of Domitian the Christian faith had been accepted by various patricians. As examples, Flavius Clemens, the Emperor's cousin, and Acilius Glabrio, consul under Domitian, are cited, and the point is made that the argument does not rest upon ecclesiastical documents, but upon Roman historians and biographers of the time of Domitian himself. Who are these writers? For Flavius Clemens the authority given is Suetonius, who says that he was put to death *ex tenuissima suspicione*. Lanciani translates this "on a very slight suspicion *of his faith*." But the context contains not a word to suggest that his faith had anything to do with his execution. The truth is, that for his case as well as for the banishment of Glabrio, the authority for the charge of atheism is Xiphilinus, a monk who lived ten centuries after Domitian, and who has left us an epitome of Dio Cassius, who was born over half a century after Domitian died. Lanciani cites Xiphilinus without the least warning that he did not live "in the time of Domitian." And even in this writer we read that the two noblemen were converts to the Jewish, not to the Christian faith. For Glabrio's execution we are referred to Suetonius (*Dom.* 10), where it is said that he and others were put to death *quasi molitores rerum novarum*. This expression, says Lanciani, "has a religious meaning in the case of Glabrio, a convert to the Christian faith, called *nova superstitio* by Suetonius and Tacitus." Tacitus, who says not a word about the death of Glabrio, nowhere uses *nova superstitio* of Christianity; Suetonius uses the phrase, but not in connection with Glabrio's death. But the tomb of Glabrio has been found in Rome (he was killed in exile) with the inscription upon it—we are given a plan of the crypt, whose "small oratory at the southern end seems to have been consecrated exclusively to the memory of the ex-Consul." Proof enough, apparently, that he was a Christian; but Lanciani says never a word of the fact that the letters of the inscription belong to the time of the Antonines, and probably refer to a descendant of the Consul. Yet this fact is stated in at least one of the articles to which reference is made in a foot-note on the same page on which the inscription is reproduced. Well may he remark that it is not known when Glabrio's remains were transferred from his place of exile to Rome. The fact is, there is no evidence that they were ever transferred at all.

On the Christian side, another example of unscientific treatment is the discussion of the burial-place of St. Peter. We do not here raise the question whether the saint was or was not buried there; but we do say that if the question was to be treated at all in this book, none but sound arguments should have been employed; any others merely discredit the art of the archæologist. We believe that even the tyro will feel that there is not a single weighty argument in the whole twenty pages devoted to this subject, except the purely negative one that no other city save Rome ever claimed to possess St. Peter's tomb. This is, to be sure, a strong argument, but all the rest are mere traditions. Yet "for the archæologist," says Lanciani, "the presence and execution of St. Peter in Rome is a fact established beyond a shadow of a doubt by purely monumental evidence." "So much the worse for the archæologist, if the argument is here fully set forth," will be the comment of every thoughtful reader. And it is, to say the least, very strange to find unmentioned the fact that, even according to Church traditions, there has been a disturbance of St. Peter's remains. It is no modern story that only half his body lies under the church that bears his name and the other half under St. Paul's. We find this asserted in a fourteenth century MS. appendix to the 'Mirabilia,' and Evelyn heard it when he was in Rome in 1644.

We have already pointed out one instance of inexact quotation from Suetonius. On page 168 Livy is inexactly quoted; on page 175 a statement from Livy is attributed to the 'Monumentum Ancyranum,' which in turn on page 174 is called a copy of the "will" of Augustus. On page 313 it is hardly correct to say that Trajan's celebrated letter to Pliny about the Christians "made persecution a rule of state." On the contrary, the Emperor was evidently quite unwilling to write anything which could be taken as a law of the Empire, for he seems to have thought that the new sect would require different treatment in the different places in which it appeared. He expressly says, "The Christians are not to be sought out." On page 270, Lanciani accepts without question, though it is certainly matter for doubt, the theory that a recently discovered Pompeian fresco represents the Judgment of Solomon. On the next page we have an illustration from one of the well-known frescoes of the Villa Pamfili, which Petersen is said to take as a representation of the same judgment. We have not seen the article in which Petersen suggests this theory, but it seems as unlikely that he would have suggested it without publishing that other fresco, found in the same place, of the child about to be cut in halves, as it does that "Hamlet" was ever played with the part of *Hamlet* left out.

On the subject of the Secular Games, there is absolutely nothing in the newly discovered inscription to prove that the first stanzas of Horace's "Carmen" "were sung when the procession was marching from the temple of Apollo to that of Jupiter Capitolinus, the middle portion in the Capitol, and the last on the way back to the Palatine" (p. 81). Again, in verses 17 to 20 of the hymn there is a prayer to the goddess to prosper the decree of the Senate in reference to the matrimonial laws. The allusion is, of course, to the new laws which set a premium upon wedlock, and which, among other penalties, forbade marriageable but unmarried adults from being present at festivals. But Lanciani thinks that the reference is to the *suspension* of this penalty for the occasion of the Secular Games, because a suspension is noted in the inscription. Moreover, in a foot-note we are informed that this inscription is of such exceptional interest (as, indeed, it is) that it is given *as edited by Mommsen* (our italics) at the close of the volume. Sure enough, we find at the end the inscription, but *not* as edited by the great German. What we are offered is a reproduction by some photographic process of the inscription as it appeared in the *Revue Archéologique*. That magazine professed to be publishing Mommsen's text; how false was its claim may be judged from the fact that in a single reading we noted no less than forty-three deviations from Mommsen, including blunders in numerals, in spelling, in assimilations, omissions of the apex, and insertions of restorations never sanctioned by Mommsen; furthermore, a whole line was omitted in one place and a complete line inserted in another. The inscription, therefore, as here published, is utterly untrustworthy and almost worthless to scholars. It seemed so incredible that Lanciani could have been guilty of such a piece of carelessness that we looked into the matter, and found that both foot-note and inscription were inserted in this country without his knowledge, and without consultation with any Latin scholar. We suspect, also, that the proofs of the book may not have been submitted to his eye, for this would account for various false references in the foot-notes. No man familiar with the classics could let such a reference stand as "Suetonius, Dom. 92"!

BANDELIER'S INDIANS OF THE SOUTHWEST.

Investigations among the Indians of the Southwestern United States carried on mainly in the years from 1880 to 1885. By A. F. Bandelier. Final Report. Part II. Archæological Institute of America. Cambridge. 1892.

WITH this, the second part of his Final Report, Mr. Bandelier closes the account of his investigations among the Indians of New Mexico, Arizona, and other portions of the Southwest. In it he deals "more particularly" with the archæology of that region, and, satisfactory as is the treatment of this branch of his subject, it is confessedly incomplete in so far as it shows only one side of the shield. To understand the full extent of his work in that quarter, it is necessary to take this volume in connection with his other publications in this same series. Especially must it be studied in the light which Part I. of this Report throws upon the ethnology of the tribes that are found there to-day, or may have lived there at some time in the past; for one volume supplements the other, and both are necessary to enable us to understand the origin of these ruined structures and the development of the people who built them. That this is the only way in which these remains can be satisfactorily investigated is a point upon which we have repeatedly insisted, and our object in referring to it now is to call attention to the fact that Mr. Bandelier's success in clearing up the mystery in which they were supposed to be enveloped is due, not so much to work in the field as to his researches in the library. Undoubtedly these "finds," as they are called, furnished him with a text, and there can be no question as to their number, or the interest that attaches to them from an archæological point of view; but aside from this, no matter whether they consist of the ruins of houses or mere broken arrowheads, they are cumulative in character, and tell us nothing new of the life of the people among whom such work was possible—nothing that we did not know before, or might not have inferred from previous publications. Sweeping as is this assertion, it hardly goes far enough, for we may safely say that all the "digging"

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that has taken place in this country since Squier's day has not brought to light one additional fact of the slightest ethnological importance.

But while heartily approving of our author's method of investigation, we are by no means sure that he has chosen the best manner of publishing his researches. To divide the subject as he has done — the ethnology in one volume and the archæology in another—may have enabled him to preserve a certain continuity in discussing the different questions that sprang up in the course of the inquiry; but, on the other hand, the fact that the two lines of investigation, instead of running in parallel planes, are often found united, made it impossible for him to keep the trains of thought separate, and, consequently, there were times when he was obliged to repeat himself. This occurs oftener than is desirable, though it can hardly be spoken of as a fault, since the fact, or rather statement, of whose repetition we complain is not unfrequently an integral part of the text, and, of course, its reassertion is necessary. With this slight comment upon the manner of publication, and with an expression of the regret which all students will feel at the absence of an index, our fault-finding must come to an end; for although exception may be taken to certain statements, yet, as a rule, the points of contention will be found to lie outside of the pale of documentary evidence, and, so far as they are matters of opinion, a difference is permissible. Thus, for example, while it is possible, as we are told (Part I., pp. 182-317 and Part II., p. 581), that the Navajos show a greater aptitude for progress in a material sense than many of the Pueblos, it is by no means certain that this superiority "results naturally from the effects of a shifting life." In fact, so far is this from being the case that the evidence all seems to point the other way. But, even assuming that our author is as faulty in his fact as he is believed to be in the explanation, it would not affect the accuracy of his account of the actual status of these tribes in the scale of progress, nor would it invalidate his conclusion as to the correlation between the phase of development which they had reached and the origin and character of these ruins. This, it will be remembered, was the problem that confronted him, and it is a pleasure to be able to say that he has solved it in a manner that leaves nothing to be desired.

This will not be news to all who know the thorough manner in which Mr. Bandelier does his work, but for the benefit of those who are unacquainted with his methods, it may be well to add that, in the present instance, he has followed the plan of investigation with which his 'Archæological Tour in Mexico' made us familiar. Indeed, he may be said to have improved upon it, for, not content with some years of work in the field and the evidence of the early records, ecclesiastical as well as civil and political, he identified himself with a neighboring band of Pueblo Indians for the purpose of studying their customs, and learning what they had to tell of these ruins and of the people to whom they belonged. In thus appealing to tradition, he draws from the only source of information which he had thus far left untouched, and while its revelations are not always trustworthy, yet, when they are in accord with the testimony of the early chroniclers and the evidence of the spade and pick-axe, they stamp the conclusions to which they lead as final.

An example of the favorable results that follow from the use of these several lines of inquiry will be found in Part I., p. 131, and in Part II., pp. 6-291, where we are told that it was information given our author by a Tehua Indian that led to the identification of the abandoned Piros village of Tabira with the Gran Quivira of the Spanish records. A similar success crowned the effort to account for the hundreds of ruins that are scattered about this region, and to reconcile their number with the statement (Part I., pp. 121-136) that in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries "the aggregate population of the Pueblos could not have exceeded 25,000 souls," and was probably never greater. Facts like these were, at one time, thought to involve a contradiction, but an explanation of the seeming difficulty becomes simple enough when we take into consideration the frequency with which these Indians changed their village sites as well as their mode of building. On this point the evidence is clear; and, generally speaking, not only are the reasons for such changes not hard to find, but they do not differ from those that actuated the Indians east of the Mississippi under similar circumstances. In the one region, as in the other, the supply of wood, water, and arable land, to say nothing of the safety of the position and the character of the available building material, were among the factors that decided the style of house and the choice or abandonment of a village site.

Of the civilization of these tribes, when they first came in contact with the whites, our accounts are full and explicit. For all practical purposes, they may be said to have reached the same level of development, though our author finds it convenient to divide them into Pueblos, or rather "land-tilling Indians," and "wandering tribes," like the Apache. This line of separation is, no doubt, marked, but it was neither permanent nor impassable, for instances are on record, within the historic epoch, of "wild tribes becoming villagers and villagers turning to a wandering life." There are also tribes (Part II., p. 582) one part of which was living in villages, while the remainder led a roving existence. Aside from these differences, which are of degree and do not necessarily mean any decided advance in the scale of progress, there was a general sameness prevailing in the culture of these tribes. One and all, they were living in what is known as the stone age, and their arts, industries, manners, customs, religion, form of government, etc., belonged essentially to this phase of development. Variations there were in many particulars, but they were slight, and when found among the sedentary tribes they "appear" to be due to physical causes and influences. Even "the difference between the arts of the savage and Pueblo is," we are told (Part I., p. 186), "marked only in degree, according as the mode of life exacted from man a peculiar development under altered circumstances. The religious system, the general character of creeds and beliefs, appear analogous, if not uniform. So were the system of government and the social institutions. It was language that separated the various groups and kept them apart."

Such, in brief, is the story of these tribes as told in the early chronicles. It is conclusive as to the existence of a uniform stage of development throughout this entire region, though the differences in some of the arts, especially in the manner of building, among these tribes and between them and their neighbors, indicates an improvement in the direction from north to south. The advance was not great, for, in mechanical skill, the houses of the Iroquois and the Alaskan tribes compare favorably with the stone and adobe buildings of the southwest, and such changes as do exist were due to a difference in the building material of the respective localities. Still, there was progress; and though "the transition does not necessarily imply a common origin of the tribes that inhabited these different regions," yet its bearing upon this point (and, we may add, upon the origin of the Nahuatl civilization of Mexico and Central America) cannot be overlooked. Especially is this so in view of the fact that the traditions of the Southwestern tribes speak of "the drift of these shiftings from more northerly regions to southerly climes," and, what is more to the point, "these traditions are to some extent borne out by the evidence of their language." There are other matters of interest discussed in this report of which we would gladly speak did time and space permit. As it is, we content ourselves with again commending these volumes to all who have more than a passing interest in the abandoned pueblos of the Southwest and in the people who occupied them.

In conclusion we must be permitted to acknowledge the obligation which we, in common with all other students of American antiquities, owe to the Archæological Institute of America for the publication of this report. Even if it had never done anything else, the Institute, by this one act, has amply justified its existence.

Books in Chains and Other Bibliographical Papers. By the late William Blades. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1892. 16mo, pp. xl, 232.

THIS collection of Mr. Blades's minor writings and contributions to journals begins with an introduction and appreciative criticism of Mr. Blades's literary work. "Books in Chains," the most important paper, describes the collections of books in various English churches that have been or still are chained for public use. The chain prevented theft and the lending of books to forgetful borrowers. When books were in manuscript and on vellum, and necessarily expensive, this safeguard was necessary. When books of paper were made cheap by printing, it became possible for the poor reader to buy the books that he had borrowed, and so the method of chaining slowly fell into disuse. Yet there are chained books in some of the parish churches of Great Britain; they are still to be seen in the Laurentian Library at Florence. Mr. Blades thus explains the use of chained books in churches:

"The custom of fastening books to their shelves by chains was common at an early period throughout Europe. When a book was given to a mediæval library, it was necessary, in the first place, to buy a chain, and, if the book was of especial value, a pair of clasps; secondly, to employ a smith to put them on; and, lastly, a painter to write the name and class-mark across the fore-edge. Large collections of chained books were for the use of particular bodies of students; but when religious zeal made many people feel the want of spiritual food, it led to the chaining of single volumes in churches, where any parishioner, able to read, could satisfy his soul. The Bible was, of course, one of the most common, and among others were Fox's 'Book of Martyrs,' the various works of Bishop Jewel and other divines."

The paper on the use and development of signatures in books is a favorable example of the careful manner in which Mr. Blades examined every detail of book-making. Until he wrote on the subject, everybody accepted the dictum that signatures to books were first used by Anthony Zarot of Milan, in 1470, or by Koelhoff of Cologne in 1472. It does not appear that any one had taken the trouble to examine early manuscripts to see whether signatures are not older than typography. Mr. Blades, who first investigated the question in a proper manner,

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has demonstrated that the chief use of signatures was and is for the binder; that binding is as old as books, and that signatures are as old as binders. In proof of this proposition he cites the signatures in some sixteen manuscript books, now in British libraries, written at various times, between the eleventh and fifteenth centuries. Then come specifications of twenty printed books containing manuscript signatures, and twenty books containing both manuscript and printed signatures. The uncertain steps taken by the early printers in their first attempts to make use of this method for the exact arrangement of the folded sections of a book, are traced with a thoroughness that leaves nothing to be desired.

The "Early Schools of Typography" shows the calm, judicial temper of an investigator who means to present all sides of the subject in the clearest light, but Mr. Blades has arranged a presentation that does not lead us to a wise conclusion. His mistake begins with the assumption that typography is more an outgrowth of old processes than the invention of an entirely new art; that it is the unavoidable development of engraving on wood and of block-book printing. This handling of the subject commits him to the theory that improvement in typography must have been slow and gradual, and that there must have been a rude practice long before the perfect practice of Gutenberg. This begs the whole question. There is no evidence that the successful demonstrator was indebted to an earlier inventor. Reasoning from an imperfect knowledge of some petty undated books attributed to an unknown printer of Holland, once supposed to be Coster (who is said to have printed books between 1423 and 1440), he assumes that these books are the missing links in the chain of gradual development. He has to admit that the legend of Coster is fabulous, and that our knowledge of the date of these books is imperfect and unsatisfactory, for quite as much evidence can be offered to show that they were printed after 1450 as before. Whether it was earlier or later is of small interest. It is more important for us to know that this so-called Dutch school of typography, which he thinks was first, was based on processes that other printers never accepted. It was not "the art that is now used." It had no scholars and no known development, for neither in Holland nor in any part of Europe have been found other books made by rival printers after the Dutch method.

The theory of gradual development in the invention of typography is not more warrantable than it would be if applied to the invention of the steam-engine. We have evidence that the expansive force of steam was understood long before the invention of the steam engine. It is certain that the Marquis of Worcester and others made use of steam for mechanical purposes, but there is no evidence that James Watt was indebted to any experimenter for his form of steam-engine. He worked out the problem alone. He was the first to give us the essentials of the steam-engine as it now is. The judgment of the world is right in giving the honor of an invention, not to the man who imagined its possibility, or even to him who made a feeble application or an experimental use of his invention; the honor is due not to the man who tried, but to the man who did. "It is perhaps possible," writes Lessing, "to show of all inventions that somewhere somebody must have been very near to it. To assert of any invention whatever that it could or should have been invented long ago, is nothing but chicane; we are to prove, incontrovertibly, that it was really invented, or else be silent."

The last paper is a detailed description of the technical faults in a British painting intended to show the invention of typography—the work of a painter who must have thought that technical accuracy was of slight value. It can be read with profit by all designers who are accustomed to construct sketches not from knowledge, but from imagination.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brainerd, I. H. Index and List of Authorities to Von Holst's Constitutional and Political History of the U. S. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $2.50.
Brown, W. H. Business Correspondence and Manual of Dictation. Excelsior Publishing House.
Hutton, Alfred. Old Sword Play. Illustrated. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Lee, Elizabeth. The Humor of France. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 80, Oct.—Dec., 1892. Boston.
Milner, Alfred. England in Egypt. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Nichol, J. P. Victor Hugo: A Sketch of his Life and Work. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Sykes, J. F. J. Public Health Problems. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
The Defence of Prof. Briggs before the Presbytery of New York. Scribners. 50 cents.
Williams, Montagu. Round London, Down East and Up West. Macmillan. $1.25.
Wood, Prof. W. Ideals of Life: A Symposium on the Coming Man. E. B. Treat. $2.75.

AMERICAN SCIENCE SERIES.

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